A

New Geographical Grammar:

Containing a

COMPREHENSIVE SYSTEM OF MODERN GEOGRAPHY,

AFTER A

NEW AND COMPENDIOUS METHOD.

EXHIBITING

I. A general View of the TERRAQUEOUS GLOBE: Being a Deſcription of the Figure, Motion, and Magnitude of the EARTH; the Theory of the AIR, WINDS, and TIDES; the Doctrine of the SPHERE; the Uſe of the GLOBES, applied to ſuch Problems as every Day occur; the Conſtruction of MAPS, with ſuch geographical Definitions, Schemes, and Deſcriptions, as form a neceſſary INTRODUCTION to this moſt uſeful and delightful Branch of LEARNING.

II. A particular View of the TERRAQUEOUS GLOBE: Being an accurate Deſcription of all the EMPIRES, KINGDOMS, STATES, PROVINCES, and COLONIES in the KNOWN WORLD; ſhewing their Situation, Extent, Climate, Air, Soil, Animal, Vegetable, and Mineral Productions; the Genius, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants; their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce.

To which is added

AN APPENDIX,

Containing a GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE, with the Names and Situations of the CHIEF CITIES, TOWNS, &c. ALPHABETICALLY ARRANGED.

The whole laid down in a Manner ſo eaſy and natural, by Way of DIALOGUE between a MASTER and his SCHOLAR, as to be adapted to every Capacity, and very proper for the Uſe of Schools in general.

Illuſtrated with MAPS and other COPPER-PLATES.

Addreſſed to the YOUNG LADIES and GENTLEMEN of GREAT BRITAIN.

By CHARLES VYSE,

Teacher of the MATHEMATICS, and Author of the TUTOR's GUIDE, the LADIES ACCOMPTANT, the ARITHMETICIANS REPOSITORY, &c.

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To the YOUNG LADIES and GENTLEMEN of GREAT BRITAIN,

(However titled, or otherwiſe diſtinguiſhed)

LADIES and GENTLEMEN,

THE neceſſity of the knowledge of the uſe of the Globes and Sphere, for an eaſy conception and due underſtanding of the principles of Geography, Aſtronomy, and other liberal Sciences, is known to every one, and is of the firſt conſideration among the qualities requiſite for forming the Scholar and Gentleman.

The knowledge of the World, and of its Inhabitants, though not the ſublimeſt purſuit of mankind, it muſt be allowed is that which moſt nearly intereſts them, and to which their abilities are beſt adapted; and Books of Geography, which deſcribe the Situation, Extent, Climate, Air, Soil, Animal, Vegetable, and Mineral Productions; the Genius, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants; their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce, promiſe the beſt aſſiſtance for attaining this knowledge, both with pleaſure and delight.

For as Dr. Watts obſerves, there is not a ſon or daughter of Adam, but has ſome concern in both Geography and Aſtronomy.

Therefore, Ladies and Gentlemen, this compendious Syſtem of Geography, a ſcience no longer eſteemed as a fine accompliſhment only, but a neceſſary part of Education, as it conveys ſuch a knowledge of the World, of which you are inhabitants, as muſt render you not only agreeable companions, and more ſerviceable to your country in public life, but more happy in your ſmaller circles of connection and private retirements, where you may ſit and traverſe the whole Globe in a ſhort time with pleaſure and delight, is, with the profoundeſt reſpect,

Dedicated and devoted

To your ſervices

By the AUTHOR.

PREFACE.

THE uſefulneſs of Geography is too well known to need any recommendation here. It may indeed be called the ſcience of neceſſity, becauſe it is of the utmoſt importance in almoſt every condition of life; it is therefore no wonder that a great variety of books have been written on a ſubject ſo generally uſeful to mankind; they are almoſt all, however, calculated only for perſons who have made ſome progreſs in mathematical learning, or are at leaſt acquainted with the elements of geometry. It was therefore imagined that a ſhort treatiſe, adapted more particularly to the inſtruction of youth, would be favourably received by the public. The utmoſt care has therefore been taken throughout the whole work to render every thing as plain and eaſy as poſſible: nothing has been omitted to attain this valuable end; and elegance has been occaſionally ſacrificed to perſpicuity.

In the Introduction, which contains the ſcientifical part of Geography, and in which the whole difficulty conſiſts, the rudiments of the ſcience are laid down in ſo natural and eaſy a manner that an attentive peruſal will alone be found ſufficient for underſtanding the whole. The method which has been taken, and which it is apprehended will be found abundantly ſufficient for this purpoſe, is that of leading the reader ſtep by ſtep from the plaineſt and moſt evident principles to propoſitions that require a cloſer degree of attention, and which would perhaps have been found too abſtruſe for a learner, had not all the difficulties been gradually removed as he advanced: each propoſition prepares the way for the next, by which means the whole is rendered equally plain and eaſy to be underſtood. For want of obſerving this method, many treatiſes on the ſciences are rendered obſcure, and the ſubject itſelf is frequently conſidered as too difficult to be underſtood without a long and tedious courſe of ſtudy.

In the body of the work care has been taken to give a ſuccinct account of the various parts of the terraqueous globe, their climate and ſoil, their mountains and rivers, their harbours and

bays, their animals and vegetables, mines and minerals: to diſplay the ancient and preſent ſtate of the ſeveral empires, kingdoms, republics and ſtates, into which the ſurface of the earth is politically divided; their forces and revenues, commerce and manufactures, towns and cities; together with the learning, arts, cuſtoms, and manners of the inhabitants. In a word, to give the reader an idea of the various objects that merit attention in the ſeveral parts of the world.

In this new edition a variety of additions and corrections have been made, from the information afforded by the moſt accurate and judicious modern travellers; and the Summary of the Hiſtory of the different countries continued for a period of nearly thirty years (to the latter end of 1799) of which the laſt ſeven have been eſpecially productive of remarkable events, in conſequence of the French revolution, and the momentous occurences of the preſent war. The new diviſion of France, as made by order of the late National Aſſembly, and altered by ſubſequent decrees of the legiſlative power, is accurately given; and the departments enumerated into which ſeveral of the countries ſubjected by that republic have been divided.

divided. New Dialogues have alſo been added to deſcribe the country of Abyſſinia, according to the account given of it by Mr. Bruce; Caffraria, or the country of the Hottentots; and the kingdoms on the coaſt of Africa. The geography of the United States of America, including all the new ſtates, has been given, as fully as the plan of this work would admit, from a recent American publication of the greateſt accuracy and authority; and a conciſe account added of the diſcoveries of Captain Cook, and other modern circumnavigators, with a ſummary deſcription of the iſlands of the South Sea, with which their repeated voyages have made us acquainted.

The maps in this edition are all new engravings, conſiderably improved, and, it is preſumed, equal to any offered with a work of this kind.

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A

NEW AND COMPLETE GEOGRAPHICAL GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAP. I.

Explaining the natural and artificial Diviſions, Motion, Figure, *and* Magnitude *of the* EARTH; *the* Theory *of the* WINDS *and* TIDES; *the* Doctrine *of the* SPHERE; *the* Principles *of* ASTRONOMY; *the* Uſe *of the* GLOBES; *and the* Conſtruction *and* Uſe *of* MAPS.

DIALOGUE I.

Between a MASTER *and his* SCHOLAR. *In which the true* Figure *of the* EARTH *is conſidered.*

M. I HAVE often promiſed that as ſoon as you were ſufficiently acquainted with the elements of Arithmetic, &c. I would endeavour to make you a proficient in Geography: you have now acquired thoſe neceſſary branches of learning, and therefore I ſhall proceed to perform my promiſe.

S. I am greatly obliged to you for this further mark of your eſteem, and will ſincerely labour to imprint your inſtructions on my memory.

M. I hope you will be very attentive, and I will then venture to promiſe, that you will meet with no material difficulty, eſpecially if you are careful to aſk an explana-

tion of every thing you do not thoroughly underſtand: I would not have you afraid of being either troubleſome or impertinent on this occcaſion; for if you let any particular paſs without ſufficiently comprehending it, you will give yourſelf a great deal of unneceſſary trouble.

S. I ſhall always think it my duty to obſerve your directions: and will therefore, with your leave, begin with aſking what I am to underſtand by the word Geography?

M. The term Geography is borrowed from the Greek, and is compounded of γῆ (*ge*) the earth, and γράφω (*grapho*) to deſcribe; and accordingly ſignifies that ſcience which conſiders the figure, motion, magnitude, diviſions, &c. of the earth, or this terraqueous globe on which we live.

S. Why do you call this earth a terraqueous globe?

M. Becauſe it is compoſed of earth and water; the epithet terraqueous, being formed from the Latin, and compounded of *terra*, earth, and *aqua*, water.

S. You called our earth a terraqueous globe, and have certainly ſufficient reaſons for it; but I ſhould be very glad to know what methods have been taken to determine its figure?

M. Your queſtion cannot be entirely anſwered: it is impoſſible, at this diſtant period of time, to know all the reaſons that induced the primitive inhabitants of our earth to imagine it was of a globular figure; but I will give you the beſt account in my power. In the firſt journies the early inhabitants of the earth undertook, they doubtleſs travelled from one place to another, merely by the information of the people of each country through which they paſſed, and marked out their courſe by trees, mountains, and other fixed objects of nature. Their progreſs, therefore, on the ſurface of the earth, was ſlow and tedious, they were ignorant both of its figure and its limits: perhaps they never imagined that it was poſſible to obtain any knowledge of either. But as the number of people increaſed, a mutual intercourſe between them became neceſſary; and, conſequently, other methods for directing them in their long journies. They ſoon found that trees and mountains were inſufficient, and could not but obſerve that while the far greater part of the ſtars turned round them,

them, ſome of them always remained nearly in the ſame ſituation; and therefore might ſerve them as ſure guides whenever they happened to loſe ſight of their land-marks. They alſo obſerved, that the ſun, every day at noon, when he is in his greateſt elevation, was directly oppoſite to the place of theſe ſtars. This probably gave riſe to that imaginary line in the heavens, called the Meridian; which, from the time of its firſt diſcovery, became a fixed rule of direction: it being ſufficient for them to know, that in order to travel into ſuch or ſuch a country, they muſt either go directly to, or from the ſun, or croſs the meridian in this or that direction. By carefully obſerving theſe ſtars, which ſeemed to mark out a meridian, and which they at firſt thought to be fixed, they were ſoon convinced that they had determined too haſtily. They perceived that they moved like the other ſtars, but much ſlower; that they were ſometimes more, and ſometimes leſs elevated; and that in the ſpace of one revolution of the ſun, they were found at one time in their greateſt, and at another time in their leaſt elevation. They alſo obſerved, that theſe ſtars deſcribed circles in the heavens round one point, correſponding with their mean elevation; and that to this fixed point they ought to draw the meridian.

As ſoon as they had conſtructed inſtruments, with which they could take the height of the heavenly objects, or their angles of elevation, it was eaſy for them to find the altitude, or height of this immoveable point in the heavens. For as each ſtar daily performed a revolution round this point, it muſt be as much below the ſtar when that object was in its greateſt, as above it when in its leaſt elevation. The difference between theſe two elevations, gave the diameter of the circle the ſtar deſcribed; therefore by adding half this difference to the leaſt elevation, they had the height of the point round which the ſtars appeared to revolve; and this point they called the pole, or center.

Thoſe who travelled in the direction of the meridian ſoon perceived, that the greateſt and leaſt elevations of the ſtars varied, and were not the ſame in any other place, as they were in their own country. Such as travelled towards the pole, obſerved, that the ſtars near that point became more elevated, while the ſtars in the oppoſite quarters became more depreſſed, than at the place whence they ſet

out. On the contrary, thoſe who travelled towards the ſouth, obſerved, that the ſtars near the pole gradually ſet, while the ſouthern ſtars roſe in proportion; they even diſcovered in the ſouth new ſtars, which they had not before ſeen. Hence they perceived, that the ſurface of the earth was not a plane, as they had at firſt imagined, but a curve; and that their meridian line was a circle. It was not however, till many ages after, that the earth was known to be of a globular figure. The ancients made very few obſervations, and even theſe were too imperfect to ſolve a problem of this kind.

S. Are there any obſervations that demonſtrate the earth to be of a globular figure?

M. Yes; ſeveral. The very manner of our ſeeing diſtant objects, is a confirmation of this truth: we ſee the ſummits of elevated bodies, when their baſes are concealed. This is very evident when we ſtand on the ſea ſhore, and view a ſhip at her firſt appearance, when only the tops of her maſts and ſails are viſible; for as ſhe approaches, ſhe ſeems to riſe gradually out of the ſea, every part becoming viſible by degrees. The ſhadow on the diſc of the moon, in lunar eclipſes, demonſtrates the earth to be globular; for this ſhadow, which is always circular, is nothing more than the ſhadow of the earth; conſequently, the figure of the earth is circular. But there is ſtill another proof which puts the globular figure of the earth beyond diſpute; ſeveral navigators have ſailed entirely round the globe.

S. You have ſatisfied me that the earth is of a ſpherical figure; but what methods could be taken to determine its magnitude? Can it be poſſible to meaſure a body whoſe dimenſions are ſo diſproportioned to our organs?

M. Your queſtions are very pertinent: the human body is nothing when compared to the globe of the earth; but it poſſeſſes ſomething, with which the whole maſs of matter is not to be compared; I mean the mind. It is that particle of celeſtial wiſdom which diſcovers the ſeveral properties of bodies, and has dared to attempt the arduous taſk of meaſuring the vaſt body of the earth. A much eaſier undertaking had formerly appeared raſh and impious to one of the greateſt philoſophers of antiquity. Pliny, ſpeaking of a catalogue of the ſtars, made by Hipparchus, calls it "a difficult

ficult task even for a god;" but if experience has taught us that the human mind can surmount far greater difficulties, a more just idea of the divinity forbids all comparison.

I shall not describe the first attempts made by the ancients to measure the earth, because there is no certainty with regard to the length of the stadia they made use of; and consequently their calculations are now useless. The difficulty is indeed so great, that notwithstanding the importance of the inquiry, the mathematicians were so unhappy in their attempts, that about the middle of the last century, Snellius and Riccioli, both able artists, differed no less than 4810 feet in the length of a degree of the meridian. The mensuration of Snellius would, perhaps, have been very near the truth, had he not unfortunately made a mistake in his calculations; because the place where he performed this arduous task, was very favourable to his design. The low and level country of Holland, which is often overflowed in the winter, and the water converted into ice, is certainly the best calculated for this purpose. It was in this country, and at a time when the water was frozen, that Snellius made his attempt. He measured the distance between a tower at Leyden, and another at Souterwode, thrice over, and then a strait line in the meridian on the ice; but an error creeping into his trigonometrical operations, his attempt was rendered abortive. The famous professor, Muschenbroek, was sensible of this, and accordingly, in the year 1700, undertook to correct the error by forming new triangles on the fundamental base of Snellius. He happily succeeded in his attempt, and found the length of a degree of the meridian to be 69 miles, and 711 yards, English measure. This nearly agrees with the mensuration, made 65 years before, by our countryman, Mr. Richard Norwood, who, by measuring the distance between London and York, found the length of a degree of the meridian to be 69 miles, and 958 yards; or about 69 miles and half.

S. But supposing the length of a degree of the meridian can be found; how shall I discover the magnitude of the earth?

M. Very easily. All circles are supposed to be divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees; and each degree in 60 equal parts, called minutes, &c. If, therefore, we

multiply 360, by 69.5, we ſhall have 25020 miles for the circumference of the earth. And as the circumference of every circle is to its diameter, as 3.1416, is to 1, the diameter of the earth will be readily found equal to 7964 miles, by dividing 25020, by 3.1416.

S. I have often heard that 60 miles make a degree; but this I am now convinced is a vulgar error, and ſhould be exploded; but ſhould be glad to know how it came to be eſtabliſhed?

M. It is often ſaid, by writers on geography, that 60 miles, or minutes, make a degree; but they mean geographical, not Engliſh miles: and from this expreſſion, the error, in all probability, had its riſe. But you muſt always remember, that a geographical mile is one ſixtieth part of a degree, and contains 2038.6 yards; whereas the Engliſh mile contains only 1760.

S. I ſhall take particular care to imprint this remark on my memory, and I am greatly pleaſed with knowing how to find the dimenſions of the earth on accurate and rational principles.

M. Theſe principles are certainly rational, but not ſo accurate as you imagine. If the earth were a true ſphere, they would, indeed, be as accurate as can be expected, in problems of this kind.

S. You ſurpriſe me. I always imagined there was never any doubt of the earth's being a true ſphere; and ſhould be very glad to know what its figure really is?

M. I do not wonder at your ſurpriſe. All the mathematicians of Europe were of the ſame opinion, until an accidental obſervation, made in the laſt century, gave them reaſon to think they were miſtaken.

S. What was the obſervation that occaſioned this remarkable change in the ſentiments of the learned?

M. The obſervation was this: the force of gravity, which, if we conſider the earth as a ſphere, muſt be equal in every part of the world, was found to differ in different climates. M. Richer was the author of this diſcovery. That gentleman, in the year 1672, undertook a voyage to Cayenne, an iſland of America, ſituated 5 deg. to the north of the equator, to make aſtronomical obſervations: during the courſe of which, he obſerved, that his pendulum clock, which had been rectified at Paris, loſt, every day, 2 min.

2 min. 28 ſeconds. It was eaſily perceived, that this muſt be owing to a diminution of gravity, or that the force of gravity was leſs at Cayenne, than at Paris. Nor was it long before the mathematicians perceived, that this diminution in the force of gravity, muſt reſult from the figure of the earth, which could not be that of a ſphere, but a ſpheroid, flatted at the poles, reſembling that of a turnip; and, conſequently, that the diameter of the equator was longer than the axis of the earth.

S. Was this ſingle obſervation ſufficient?

M. It was ſufficient to a Newton. That illuſtrious mathematician, by a moſt ſubtle theory, proceeded ſo far, as to calculate the proportion between the lengths of the two principal diameters of the earth.

S. But what effect can the figure of the earth have upon the degrees of the meridian; will they not ſtill be equal?

M. No; they will be unequal in length, increaſing gradually from the equator to the poles; and conſequently affect not only the magnitude of the earth, but alſo the art of navigation itſelf.

S. What is the proportion, as found by Sir Iſaac Newton, between the two principal diameters of the earth?

M. As 229 to 230; that is, the diameter of the equator is the 230th part of its length longer than the axis, or the diameter that paſſes through the poles.

S. Was this calculation eſteemed ſufficient?

M. No; two companies of mathematicians were diſpatched from France; one to meaſure the length of a degree at the equator, and the other the length of a degree in Lapland.

S. Did they ſucceed in their attempts?

M. They did; and performed their operations to a degree of accuracy ſcarcely to be imagined.

S. What is the true figure of the earth according to their menſurations?

M. It is that of an oblate ſpheroid, or flatted at the poles, the ſame as Sir Iſaac Newton had found it by calculation; but the proportion is a little different. According to them, the proportion between the earth's two principal diameters, is nearly as 266 to 265.

S. Is it neceſſary always to conſider the earth as a ſpheroid?

M. Not in the common geographical computations: the

difference being too ſmall to be of any conſequence; ſo that the earth may ſtill be conſidered as a ſphere, without any ſenſible error.

DIALOGUE II.

In which the Circles *of the* SPHERE *are explained.*

S. WHAT do you mean by the circles of the ſphere?

M. It has been found neceſſary by geographers, in order to deſcribe the poſitions of places on the ſurface of the earth, to imagine certain circles and points upon it; as their accounts could not otherwiſe be underſtood.

S. Are there any names given to thoſe imaginary points and circles?

M. Yes; the points are called the poles, and the circles, the equator, or equinoctial, meridian, ecliptic, horizon, parallels of latitude, &c. and in order to imprint the explanation of theſe the more firmly on your memory, I have added a figure, which will greatly aſſiſt you in forming juſt conceptions of the different circles, &c. of the ſphere.

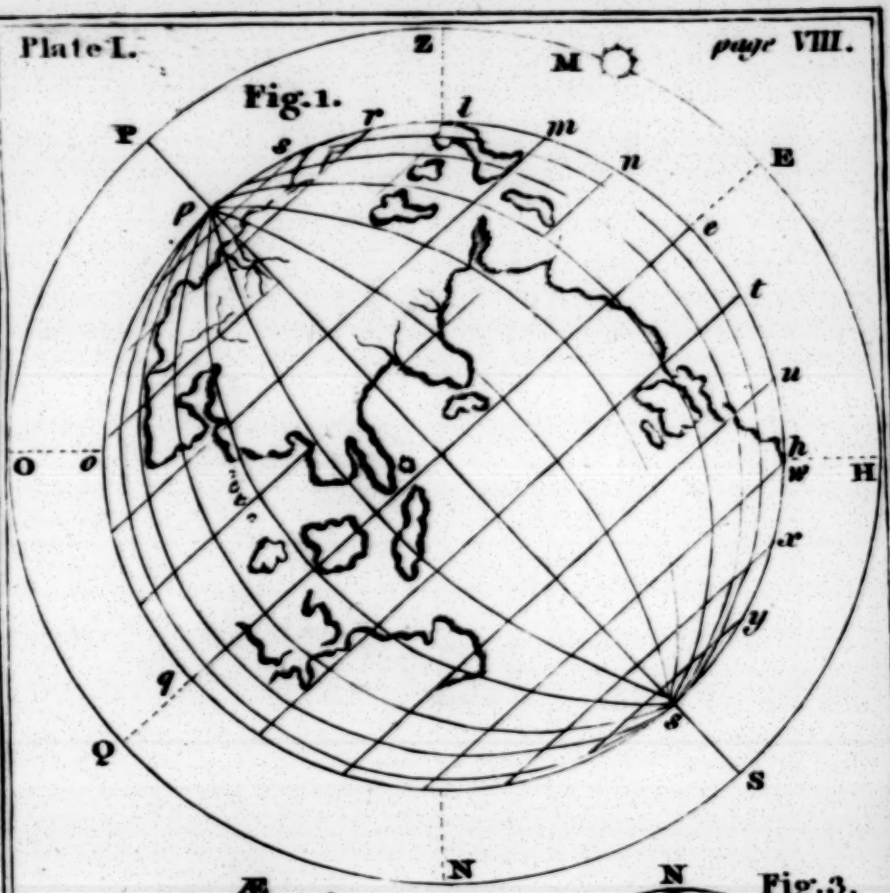
S. What am I to underſtand by the two poles?

M. In order to comprehend the anſwer to your queſtion, view carefully Fig. 1. Plate I. where the inner circle, marked with the ſmall letters, p, s, r, l, m, n, e, t. u, h, w, x, y, s, q, o, repreſents the globe of the earth; and the outer circle, marked with the capitals, P, Z, M, E, H, S, N, Q, O, repreſents the heavens. This being premiſed, the poles of the world are the two points, or extremities of the earth's axis, as p, s, the axis itſelf being the right line, p, c, s, paſſing through the center of the earth. If this line be extended to the heavens, it will there mark out two points, P, S, the former, which is viſible to us, is called the north pole; and the latter, which is inviſible to us, is called the ſouth pole.

S. What am I to underſtand by the equator, or equinoctial?

M. The equator is that great circle, which is every way diſtant from the poles, and conſequently divides the earth into two equal parts: e, c, q, Plate I, Fig. 1. repreſents the equator. But if this circle of the earth be extended to the heavens, it will then mark out another circle, equally diſtant

Fig. 1.



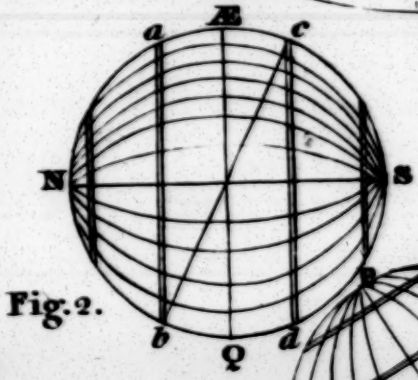


Fig. 2.

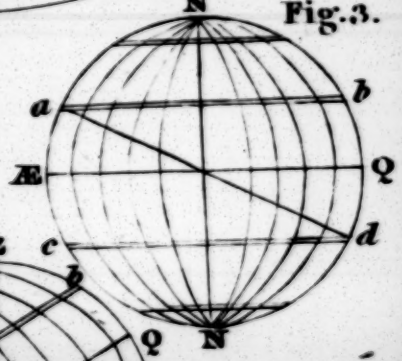


Fig. 3.

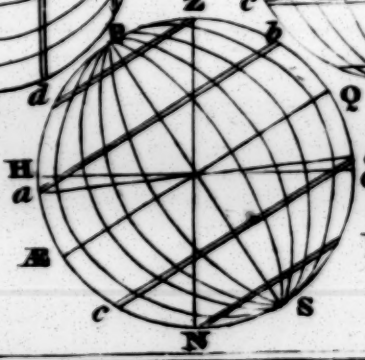


Fig. 4.

T. Morris Sculp. 5 Ely Court Holborn.

diſtant from the celeſtial poles, as E, c, Q: ſo that when this circle is conſidered as drawn on the earth, it is called the equator, and when delineated in the heavens, the equinoctial; but theſe terms are often uſed promiſcuouſly.

S. Is there any reaſon for calling this circle the equator, or equinoctial?

M. Yes; it is ſo called, becauſe, when the ſun is in this circle, the days and nights are equal to all the inhabitants of the earth.

S. What is meant by meridians?

M. The meridians are thoſe circles which paſs through the poles, and cut the equinoctial at right angles. Every place has its meridian, and whenever the ſun appears in that circle, it is noon, or mid-day. All the circles drawn in Fig. 1. Plate I. paſſing through the poles, p, and s, are meridians. Among theſe circles, two are particularly remarkable; I mean thoſe meridians which paſs through the interſection of the ecliptic and equinoctial, and thoſe which paſs through the points of Cancer and Capricorn: the former is called the equinoctial colure, and the latter, the ſolſtitial colure.

S. What is the ecliptic?

M. The ecliptic is a circle, interſecting the equator, or equinoctial, in two oppoſite points, and forming with it an angle of 23 deg. 29 minutes. This circle, the ſun appears to deſcribe annually, and by that means, produces the different ſeaſons of the year. It is divided into 12 equal parts, called ſigns, each ſign containing 30 deg. beginning from the interſection of the equator, and numbered in the following manner:

♈	♉	♊	♋	♌	♍
Aries,	Taurus,	Gemini,	Cancer,	Leo,	Virgo,

♎	♏	♐	♑	♒	♓
Libra,	Scorpio,	Sagittarius,	Capricornus,	Aquarius,	Piſces.

The former ſix, are called the northern ſigns, and poſſeſs that half of the ecliptic, which lies on the north ſide of the equator, beginning at the firſt point of Aries, and ending with the laſt point of Virgo. The latter ſix, are called the ſouthern ſigns, becauſe they poſſeſs the ſouthern half of the ecliptic, beginning at the firſt point of Libra, and ending with the laſt point of Piſces. This circle is bounded on

the north, by the tropic of Cancer, or the ſun's northern limit; and on the ſouth, by the tropic of Capricorn, the ſouthern limit of the ſun.

S. What circle is that which you call the horizon?

M. The horizon is that apparent circle, which bounds the ſight of the ſpectator, when placed on a wide extended plain. h, o, Plate I. Fig. 1. repreſents the horizon of a place, ſituated at the bottom of the pricked line, Z. If this circle be extended to the heavens, it will there mark out another circle, concentric to it, as H, O. When any heavenly object appears above the eaſtern part of this circle, it is ſaid to riſe, and when it deſcends below the weſtern part, it is ſaid to ſet.

S. I have often read of the latitude of a place, and ſhould be glad to know what is meant by that term?

M. The latitude of any place, is its diſtance from the equator, reckoned in degrees and parts of a degree, on its meridian. Thus the latitude of a place at l, is the length of the arch of the meridian, e, n, m, l, or above the horizon, and is always equal to the arch, O, P, or the height of the pole. If the place be ſituated any where between the equator and the north pole, it is ſaid to lie in north latitude; but if between the equator and the ſouth pole, the latitude is ſouth.

S. How can the latitude of a place be found?

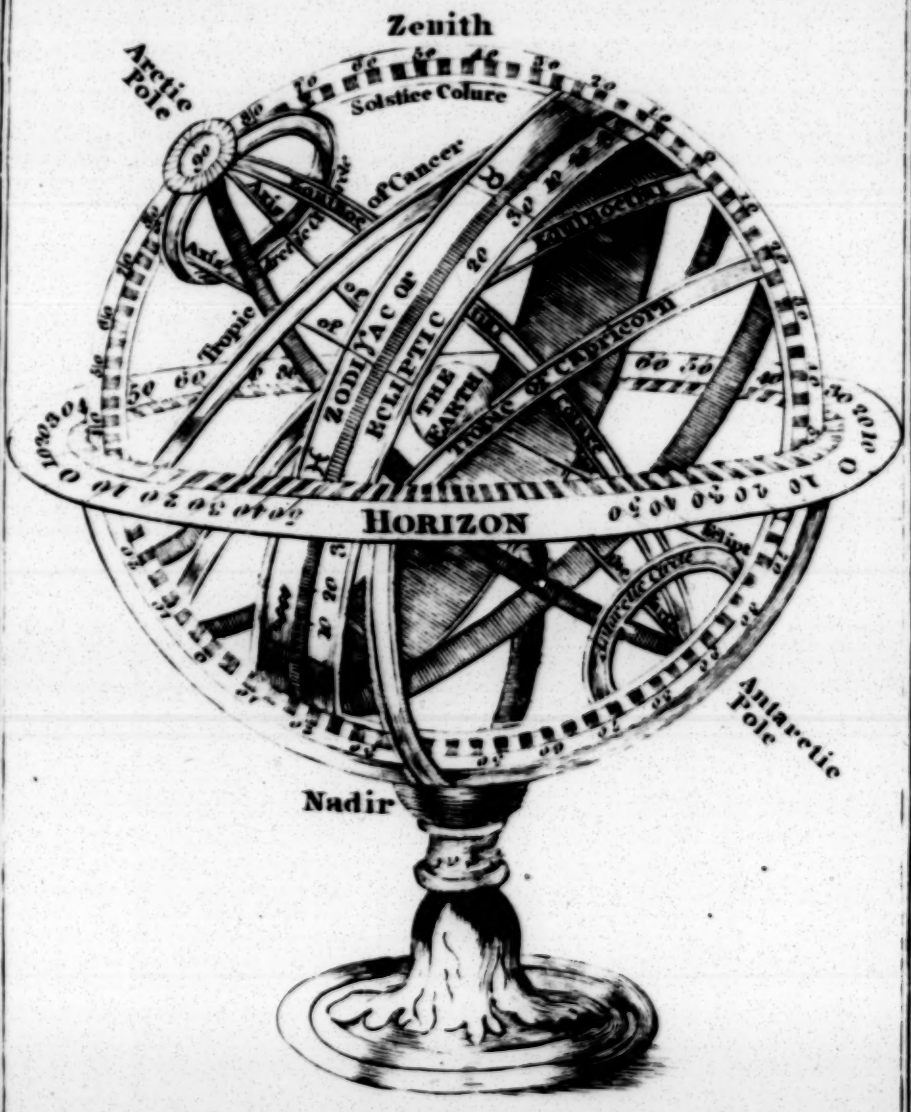
M. Either by taking, with ſome proper inſtrument, the altitude of the pole, as O, P, or the zenith-diſtance of the ſun.

S. What is meant by zenith-diſtance?

M. The zenith is that point of the heavens that is directly over the head of a ſpectator, as Z, and the nadir, another point diametrically oppoſite to the other, and directly under his feet, as N. The zenith-diſtance of the ſun, therefore, is his diſtance from the point, directly over the head of the ſpectator. Thus the zenith-diſtance of the object at M, is the arch, M, Z. Now if the diſtance of the object from the equinoctial, called its declination, be known, and alſo its zenith-diſtance, the latitude may be eaſily found.

S. What is meant by parallels of latitude?

M. Paral-



Morris Sculp.

M. Parallels of latitude are circles drawn parallel to the equator. Thus the right circles s, r, l, m, n, e, t, u, w, x, y, are parallels of latitude; and ſo called becauſe all places ſituated under the ſame parallel have the ſame latitude.

S. What is meant by the longitude of a place?

M. The longitude of any place is an arch of the equator, intercepted between the firſt meridian and the meridian of the given place, and is reckoned either eaſtward or weſtward. If the given place lie to the eaſtward of the firſt meridian, it is ſaid to lie in eaſt longitude; but if to the weſtward of it, in weſt longitude.

S. What am I to underſtand by the firſt meridian?

M. The firſt meridian is that from which the longitude is reckoned, both eaſt and weſt. And as the longitude may be computed from any point of the equator, geographers generally reckon that circle which paſſes through the zenith of the capital of their country, the firſt meridian; and hence the Engliſh call the meridian of London the firſt meridian. In order to convey a more adequate idea of the above circles, I have added, on Plate II. the figure of an armillary ſphere.

DIALOGUE III.

Explaining the natural Diviſions of the Earth.

S. WHAT am I to underſtand by the natural diviſions of the earth?

M. By the natural diviſions of the earth are meant thoſe ſeparations or partitions, which owe their origin to the hand of nature, without the leaſt aſſiſtance of human art.

S. What are thoſe diviſions called, which are formed by nature?

M. They are termed continents, iſthmuſſes, peninſulas, promontories, iſlands, mountains, oceans, ſeas, gulphs, bays, creeks, lakes, rivers, &c.

S. What is a continent?

M. A continent is a large tract of land, including various kingdoms and countries, not ſeparated from one another by any ſea.

S. How many continents are there?

M. Geographers generally reckon four continents, Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America; but as America conſiſts of two large parts, joined together by a very narrow neck of land, ſome writers conſider it as two continents, and diſtinguiſh them by the epithets of North and South. This number of continents is not however ſtrictly conformable to the diviſions of nature; for as Europe, Aſia, and Africa, are not entirely ſeparated from each other by the intervention of any ſea, they form only one continent, and America another. According to this diviſion, the former is called the Old and the latter the New World.

S. What is an iſthmus?

M. An iſthmus is a narrow neck of land, which joins two large tracts of country together; as the iſthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Europe, and the iſthmus of Darien, which connects North and South America together.

S. What is meant by a peninſula?

M. A peninſula is a tract of land almoſt ſurrounded by the water, being connected to the continent only by an iſthmus. The Morea is a peninſula, and joined to Greece by the iſthmus of Corinth.

S. What is a promontory?

M. A promontory is a cape or head-land, ſhooting out a conſiderable diſtance into the ſea; ſuch as the Cape of Good Hope, Cape Horn, Cape St. Vincent, Cape Clear, &c.

S. What am I to underſtand by an iſland?

M. A tract of land entirely ſurrounded with water; as the iſlands of Great-Britain, Ireland, Borneo, Ceylon, Madagaſcar, &c.

S. What is a mountain?

M. An eminence of remarkable height, overlooking the adjacent country. Some of them riſe to ſuch a prodigious height, that their ſummits are above the clouds; ſuch are the Alps, the Andes, the Hyperborean mountains, the mountains of the moon, &c.

S. What is meant by the term ocean?

M. The ocean is that grand collection of ſalt water, which waſhes different parts of the ſeveral continents; it is divided into different parts, and known by different names, conformable to the various parts of the land it waſhes;

waſhes. Thus the large tract of water between Europe and North America is called the Atlantic Ocean, from its waſhing the foot of mount Atlas; where it waſhes the coaſt of Guinea in Ethiopia, it is called the Ethiopic Ocean; where it waſhes the coaſt of India, it is termed the Indian Ocean. It is alſo divided into four parts with reſpect to the four principal quarters of the world; as the Eaſtern or Oriental, the Weſtern or Occidental, the Southern or Meridional, and the Northern or Septentrional Ocean. The large tract of water which waſhes the weſtern coaſt of South America, is called the Pacific Ocean or Great South Sea.

S. What is a ſea?

M. A ſea is nothing more than a ſmall part or branch of the ocean, interſperſed with iſlands, and in a great meaſure ſurrounded by the land. Of this kind are the Mediterranean, the Baltic, the Euxine, the Caſpian, and the Red Sea.

S. What is meant by a gulph, a creek, a bay, a lake, and a river?

M. A gulph is a collection of water encloſed every way by the land, except one narrow paſſage, by which it has communication with the ſea. Such are the gulphs of Venice, Perſia, &c.

A creek is a narrow part or arm of the ſea, running a conſiderable way into the land. They are almoſt innumerable in all the coaſts of the known world.

A bay is a much larger inlet than a creek, affording ſufficient room for ſhips to anchor in; as Torbay, Cadiz Bay, All Saints Bay, Cheeſepeak Bay, &c.

A lake is a large collection of water, entirely ſurrounded by the land, and having no communication with the ſea, except by rivers flowing from it. Such are the lakes of Geneva, Conſtance, Erie, Ontario, &c.

A river is a ſtream of water flowing from one or more fountains or ſources, till it falls into ſome ſea or lake. Every country abounds with rivers.

DIALOGUE IV.

Of the Diviſion of the Earth into Zones and Climates.

S. WHAT is meant by the word zone?

M. A zone is a large tract of country, or a part of the earth's ſurface, bounded by ſome of the circles of the ſphere.

S. How many zones are there?

M. Five: one torrid, two temperate, and two frigid.

S. What part of the earth is called the torrid zone?

M. The torrid zone lies between the two tropics, or the northern and ſouthern boundaries of the ſun; conſequently the ſun's beams fall ſometimes directly and at others nearly perpendicular on this large tract of country, during the whole year. For this reaſon the ancients called it the torrid or burning zone, and were perſuaded that it could not be inhabited; but experience has long ſince ſufficiently convinced us that they were miſtaken.

S. Have the inhabitants of this zone any particular name?

M. Yes; they are called Amphiſcii, becauſe the ſun being at one ſeaſon of the year to the northward of them, and at another to the ſouthward, their ſhadow at noon is caſt both ways; that is, when he is to the northward of their zenith, their ſhadow is caſt towards the ſouth, and when he is to the ſouthward of their zenith, it is caſt towards the north. But the ſun is alſo twice in the year directly in their zenith at noon, conſequently they have then no ſhadow, and therefore, at thoſe ſeaſons, they are called Aſcii, or people without ſhadows.

S. Where are the temperate zones ſituated?

M. The temperate zones are ſituated between the tropics and polar circles. The northern temperate zone is bounded on the ſouth by the tropic of Cancer, and on the north by the northern, polar, or arctic circle; and the ſouthern temperate zone by the tropic of Capricorn and the antarctic circle. In both theſe tracts the ſun-beams are more oblique, and the temperature of the air is a mean between the extremes of heat

heat and cold; but when it is ſummer in the one it is winter in the other, and vice verſa.

S. Have the inhabitants of theſe zones any particular name?

M. Yes; they are called Heteroſcii, or people with oppoſite ſhadows; for the noon-tide ſhadows of thoſe in the northern zone are always caſt towards the north, and the ſhadows of the ſouthern inhabitants towards the ſouth.

S. What parts of the earth compoſe the frigid zones?

M. The frigid zones lie between their reſpective polar circles and their poles. The extremity of the cold in theſe frozen countries induced the ancients to think that theſe tracts were alſo uninhabitable; but this opinion is likewiſe founded on miſtake.

S. Have geographers given any particular appellation to the inhabitants of the frigid zones?

M. Yes; they are called Periſcii, or people with a circular ſhadow; becauſe at one particular time of the year, the ſun never ſets for ſeveral days or even months together, according as they are ſituated nearer to or farther from the pole, and during this interval their ſhadows move entirely round about them every twenty-four hours.

The inhabitants of the earth are alſo diſtinguiſhed by three different appellations, with regard to their poſitions one to another, viz. Antipodes, Periœci, and Antœci.

S. What is meant by Antipodes?

M. The Antipodes are thoſe who live diametrically oppoſite to each other. They lie under oppoſite meridians, and conſequently their difference of longitude is 180 degrees; they have the ſame degree of longitude, but of different denominations, one being north and the other ſouth; conſequently when it is ſpring with the one it is autumn with the other, when it is ſummer with the one it is winter with the other, and when it is noon with the one it is midnight with the other.

S. What are the Periœci?

M. Thoſe who live under the ſame parallel of latitude, but their difference of longitude is 180 degrees. Their ſeaſons are the ſame; but when the ſun riſes with the one he ſets with the other, and when it is noon with the one it is midnight with the other.

S. What are the Antœci?

M. Thoſe

M. Thoſe who live under the ſame meridian, and in the ſame degree of latitude, but of different denominations, the one being north, and the other ſouth. Their noons and midnights are the ſame, but their ſeaſons are oppoſite: it being winter with the one when it is ſummer with the other.

S. I think you ſaid the earth was divided into climates; what do you mean by a climate?

M. A climate is a tract of earth bounded by two parallels of latitude, at ſuch a diſtance from each other, that the longeſt day enjoyed by thoſe who live under the parallel that is neareſt the pole, exceeds that of thoſe who live under the other parallel by half an hour.

S. How many climates are there?

M. Forty-eight; or, more properly ſpeaking, twenty-four on each ſide of the equator: and if to theſe we add ſix more of a different nature, ariſing from the increaſe of one entire month, ſituated between the polar circles and the poles, the ſum will amount to ſixty; thirty of which lie on the north, and thirty on the ſouth ſide of the equator.

DIALOGUE V.

Explaining the Theory of the Air, Winds, and Tides.

1. *Of the Air or Winds.*

S. WHAT is the air?

M. A fine inviſible fluid, which ſurrounds the globe of the earth, and extends ſome miles above its ſurface.

S. Are any of the properties of this ſubtile fluid known?

M. Yes; it appears, from a multitude of experiments, to be both very heavy and very ſpringy or elaſtic.

S. What are the conſequences of theſe properties?

M. By the former it is capable of ſuſtaining other bodies, as watery vapours, fumes, and exhalations from different ſubſtances, in the ſame manner as wood is ſupported by water; and by the latter a very ſmall quantity of it is capable

pable of being expanded in ſuch a manner, as to fill the largeſt ſpace, or of being compreſſed or confined in a much ſmaller compaſs than that which it naturally poſſeſſes. At the ſame time experiments have demonſtrated, that the air is compreſſed or condenſed by cold, and expanded or rarified by heat; whence it follows, that if the leaſt alteration be made in any part of it, either by heat or cold, its neighbouring parts will be put in motion, by that attempt which the air makes to reſtore itſelf to its original ſtate; for experiments have abundantly proved, that either condenſed or rarified air will return to its former ſtate, as ſoon as the cauſe of that condenſation or rarefaction, whatever it be, is removed, or ceaſes to act.

S. What am I to underſtand by the word wind?

M. The wind is a current or ſtream of air, which may be felt, and uſually blows from one point of the horizon to its oppoſite; as from eaſt to weſt, from north to ſouth, &c. and theſe currents of air, or winds, are either conſtant or variable, general or particular.

S. What do you mean by conſtant and variable winds?

M. Conſtant winds are thoſe which continue to blow for ſome conſiderable ſpace of time the ſame way, or in the ſame direction; but when it frequently ſhifts, or changes its direction, it is called a variable wind.

S. What is the difference between a general and a particular wind?

M. By a general wind is underſtood, that which blows the ſame way over a large tract of the globe, during the greater part of the year.

S. Have theſe general winds any other name, and in what part of the world are they found?

M. They are commonly called trade-winds, and are found between 30 degrees of north and 30 degrees of ſouth latitude, ſo that the zone or tract where theſe winds blow is about 60 degrees broad, and in this tract there is a conſtant eaſt wind blowing in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, during the whole year.

S. Can any reaſon be given for this conſtancy of the wind?

M. Undoubtedly: the ſole cauſe is owing to the action of the ſun; for as that luminary, by his apparent motion from eaſt to weſt, heats the air more immediately under him,

him, and conſequently cauſes an expanſion of that fluid, ſo the air to the eaſtward is conſtantly ruſhing towards the weſt, in order to reſtore the equilibrium or natural ſtate of the air; and hence a perpetual eaſt wind is occaſioned between theſe limits.

S. Are theſe winds found in every part of the world between the above limits?

M. No: this general motion of the wind is often diſturbed on the continents and near the ſea-coaſt; for the nature of the ſoil may either cauſe the air to be heated or cooled, and hence various motions will ariſe, ſome of which may be contrary to the general ones already mentioned. Thus it is found that in the Atlantic Ocean, about 100 leagues from the coaſt of Africa, between 28 and 10 degrees of north latitude, there is always a freſh gale of wind ſetting from the north-eaſt, and as ſhips approach the American ſide, it is found that the north-eaſt wind becomes gradually more eaſterly, ſeldom blowing more than a point from the eaſt, either to the north or ſouth. Theſe trade-winds are extended to near 32 degrees of north latitude on the American ſide of the Atlantic Ocean, which is almoſt 4 degrees farther than they extend on the African ſide.

S. I have often heard of the monſoons, and that they are a particular ſort of trade-winds; but ſhould be glad to know ſomething more of their nature and properties?

M. The monſoons are periodical winds, blowing half the year one way and the other half in a contrary direction. Theſe periodical winds are found in the Indian Ocean, in the tract between Sumatra and the African coaſt, and from three degrees of ſouth latitude quite northward to the Aſiatic coaſt, including the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal. The monſoons blow from September to April at north-eaſt, and from March to October at ſouth-weſt. The ſhifting of theſe monſoons is not all at once, nor are the changes always productive of the ſame conſequences; in ſome places the change is attended with calms, in ſome with variable winds, and in others with dreadful tempeſts; ſo that the navigation is rendered very unſafe at theſe ſeaſons of the year. The ſeamen call theſe tempeſts the breaking up of the monſoons.

S. Can

S. Can any reaſon be given for this extraordinary change of the trade-winds?

M. It is owing to the coolneſs and denſity of the air near the ſurface of the globe, whereby the warm and rarified air is forced upwards in a continual ſtream, where it muſt ſpread itſelf to maintain the equilibrium, ſo that the upper courſe or current of the air will be contrary to the under current; for the upper air muſt move from thoſe parts where the greateſt heat is, and ſo by a kind of circulatory motion the north-eaſt wind below will be attended with a ſouth-weſt wind above, and a ſouth eaſt wind below with a north-weſt wind above.

2. *Of the Tides.*

S. What am I to underſtand by the tides?

M. By the tides is meant that motion of the waters in the ſea and large rivers, by which they are found to riſe and fall regularly. The motion of the water during its riſing is called its flowing or flux, and that during its falling is ſtiled its ebbing or reflux.

S. Can this extraordinary phænomenon be rationally accounted for?

M. The ancients formed ſeveral hypotheſes to account for the riſing and falling of the waters; but the true cauſe was unknown till Sir Iſaac Newton diſcovered it.

S. Can you explain it in ſuch a manner as to give me ſome idea of this curious operation of nature?

M. I will endeavour to explain it in the cleareſt manner I am able; but as the ſubject is very intricate, the utmoſt attention will be neceſſary on your part; for otherwiſe the attempt will prove abortive.

It is abundantly evident, from daily experience, that all bodies thrown upwards from the earth, fall down to its ſurface in perpendicular directions; and as all lines perpendicular to the ſurface of a ſphere tend towards the center, therefore the lines along which all heavy bodies fall are directed towards the center of the earth; and as theſe bodies apparently fall by their own weight or gravity, the law by which their fall is regulated is called the law of gravitation. But as theſe bodies are undoubtedly drawn towards the earth by ſome active quality, it is not improper to ſay they

they are attracted by the earth: and therefore, in reſpect to the earth the words attraction and gravitation may be uſed for one another as they both imply the ſame thing, viz. that power or law by which heavy bodies tend towards the center of the earth.

By a ſagacity peculiar to himſelf, Sir Iſaac Newton diſcovered, that this law is univerſally diffuſed throughout the world, and that the regular motions among the heavenly bodies are governed by this principle; ſo that the earth and moon attract each other, and are both attracted by the ſun. He alſo diſcovered, that the force of attraction exerted by theſe bodies on each other diminiſhed, as the diſtance increaſed, in proportion to the ſquares of thoſe diſtances; that is, the power of attraction at double the diſtance was four times leſs; at triple the diſtance nine times leſs; and ſo on in the ſame proportion.

From theſe principles it will follow, that as the earth is attracted by the ſun and moon, all parts of the earth will not gravitate towards the center in the ſame manner as they would, provided theſe parts were not affected by ſuch attractions. And it is very evident, that if the earth was entirely free from ſuch attraction, the ocean would have neither flux nor reflux; becauſe as every part of it would then be equally attracted towards the center of the earth, a perfect ſtagnation would be the inevitable conſequence: but ſince this is not the caſe, the ocean muſt riſe higher in thoſe parts where the ſun and moon diminiſh the gravity of the waters, or where the ſun and moon have the greateſt attraction; and as the force of gravity muſt be moſt diminiſhed in thoſe places of the earth to which the moon is neareſt or in the zenith, her attraction there is conſequently moſt powerful. The waters, therefore, in thoſe parts of the ſea, will riſe higher than others, and be full ſea or high-water there.

Conſequently the parts of the earth directly under the moon, and alſo thoſe that are directly oppoſite, will have their high-water at the ſame time; for either of the halves of the earth would equally gravitate towards the other, were they free from all external attraction; but by the action of the moon, the gravitation of one half of the earth towards its center is diminiſhed and the other increaſed. Now in that hemiſphere of the earth next the moon, the parts in the

the zenith being moſt attracted, and conſequently their gravitation towards the earth's center diminiſhed; therefore the waters in theſe parts muſt be higher than in any other parts of this hemiſphere: and in the hemiſphere fartheſt from the moon, or thoſe in the nadir, being leſs attracted by the moon than in the parts nearer to her, gravitate leſs towards the earth's center; and conſequently the waters in thoſe parts alſo muſt be higher than they are in any other part of that hemiſphere.

At the ſame time it will be low-water in thoſe parts of the earth where the moon appears in the horizon, or 90 degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir; for as the waters at the zenith and nadir riſe, the adjacent waters will preſs towards thoſe places, in order to maintain the equilibrium, and others, to ſupply their places, will move the ſame way; and in this manner the motion will be continued to the places 90 degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir; that is, in thoſe places where the moon appears in the horizon: conſequently the water in thoſe places will be at the loweſt.

S. I think I comprehend the whole of what you have delivered; but ſhould be glad to know why the tides are higher at the full and change of the moon, and lower at the quarters, than at other times?

M. I was going to explain that particular, which flows from the ſame principles. At the full of the moon ſhe is directly oppoſite to the ſun, and therefore their forces jointly conſpire to raiſe the waters: for when the moon makes high-water in the zenith, the ſun does the ſame in the nadir. Theſe are called ſpring tides, and thoſe which happen at the quarters of the moon neap-tides. The reaſon why the neap-tides are lower than any other, is becauſe in the quarters of the moon, when theſe tides happen, the two luminaries are 90 degrees diſtant from each other; that is, when the moon is in the zenith, the ſun is in the horizon, and when the ſun is in the zenith the moon is in the horizon; conſequently where the moon raiſes the waters the ſun depreſſes them, and raiſes them where the moon depreſſes; ſo that the riſe of the tides is only equal to the difference between their attractions.

S. But do the phænomena of the tides agree with this theory?

theory? is it always high-water when the moon is either in the zenith or nadir?

M. The phænomena of the tides would always agree with the theory, if the whole earth were entirely covered with water; but as this is not the caſe, and there are multitudes of iſlands, beſides the continents, lying in the way of the tide, which interrupts its courſe; the water often cannot flow from eaſt to weſt, but muſt take ſome other direction; and therefore the times of high-water will not at all places be when the moon is in the meridian. Common experience confirms this remark; for the tide of flood ſets to the ſouthward along the coaſt of Norway, and continues its courſe along the eaſtern ſhore of Great-Britain, ſupplying all the harbours, rivers, &c. in its track, one after another; becauſe it is impoſſible for the general current of the waters from eaſt to weſt to be continued, on account of the large continent of Holland, Denmark, Norway, &c. but as water always endeavours to maintain a level, it will in its paſſage flow towards any other point of the compaſs, to fill up vacancies wherever they are found. In conſequence of this motion of the tide to the ſouthward, the ports of Scotland muſt be firſt ſupplied. Accordingly it is known, that on the days of the full and change of the moon it is high-water at Aberdeen at 45 minutes after 12 at night; but at Tinmouth-bar not till 3 in the morning. Hence rolling to the ſouthward, it makes high-water at the Spurn a little after 5, but not till 6 at Hull, becauſe of the time requiſite for its paſſing up the river; thence paſſing over the Well-bank into Yarmouth-roads, it makes high-water there a little after 8, but not before 9 in the pier, and it requires an hour more to make high-water at Yarmouth-quay; in the mean time the flood ſetting away to the ſouthward, it makes high-water at Harwich about half an hour after 10, at the Nore at 12, at Graveſend at half an hour after 1, and at London at 3, all the ſame day. In the ſame manner the courſe of the tide may be traced in every part of the world, and will be found to agree with the theory already explained, regard being had to the interruptions of the general motion of the waters from eaſt to weſt by continents, iſlands, &c.

I ſhall finiſh this account of the theory of the tides with one further remark, namely, that the ſpring-tides do not happen

happen directly at the time when the moon is at the full and change, but a day or two after, when the attractive forces of the ſun and moon have acted together for ſome conſiderable time; in like manner the neap-tides happen a day or two after the quarters, when the effect of the moon's attraction has, for ſeveral days together, been leſſened by that of the ſun.

DIALOGUE VI.

Explaining the different Poſitions of the Sphere.

S. HAS the ſphere different poſitions? I imagined it was fixed and immoveable.

M. The ſphere in which the fixed ſtars appear to be placed is really immoveable; the earth alſo has conſtantly the ſame poſition with regard to the ecliptic; but the phænomena of the heavenly bodies are different in different latitudes, nor can theſe phœnomena be explained by the artificial or armillary ſphere, but by placing it in a poſition adapted to the latitude of the place. This is what is meant by the different poſitions of the ſphere, and theſe are either direct, parallel, or oblique.

S. What is meant by a direct ſphere?

M. A direct or right ſphere, is that poſition where the equinoctial paſſes through the zenith and nadir, and the two poles become the north and ſouth points of the horizon. Fig. 2. Plate I. repreſents a direct ſphere, where Æ Q is the equinoctial, and the points, Æ, Q. the zenith and nadir; N S is the horizon; the point N the north, and the point S the ſouth pole; a, b, is the tropic of Cancer, and c, d, the tropic of Capricorn.

S. From obſerving that the zenith is in the equinoctial, I imagine that this poſition of the ſphere muſt belong to thoſe who live under the equinoctial.

M. You are extremely right, and you may eaſily perceive that their days and nights muſt be equal throughout the whole year; that the ſun riſes and falls nearly perpendicular; that he is nearly ſix months to the northward, and the ſame length of time to the ſouthward of their zenith; and that twice in the year he is directly in their zenith, at which

which time the inhabitants have no ſhadow. Their twilight, or interval of time between break of day and ſunriſing, is always equal, and continues about an hour.

S. Why is it called a right or direct ſphere?

M. Becauſe the heavenly bodies appear to aſcend from the eaſtern ſide of the horizon to the meridian, and deſcend from the meridian to the weſtern ſide of the horizon, in right or direct lines.

S. What is a parallel ſphere?

M. A parallel ſphere is where the viſible pole is directly in the zenith, and the equinoctial becomes the horizon. This poſition of the ſphere is peculiar to the parts of the earth under the pole, where the inhabitants, if indeed there are any, will perceive the ſun continually circulating nearly parallel to the horizon during the day, which will continue ſix months, the other ſix months being night. I ſaid nearly parallel to the horizon, becauſe the ſun will appear to deſcribe a ſpiral line from the horizon towards the zenith, during the firſt three months or half their day, and then deſcend in the ſame manner towards the horizon, which he will again reach in the ſame interval of time. Plate I. Fig. 3. repreſents a parallel ſphere, where N is both the north pole and the zenith; N the ſouth pole and the nadir; and ÆQ the equinoctial and horizon; a, b, is the tropic of Cancer, or the ſun's northern boundary, and c, d, the tropic of Capricorn.

S. What is an oblique ſphere?

M. An oblique ſphere is that where the heavenly bodies appear to riſe and ſet obliquely to the horizon. One of the poles is elevated above, and the other depreſſed below the horizon. This poſition of the ſphere is common to all the inhabitants of the earth, except thoſe who live under the equinoctial or one of the poles; but the obliquity is greater or leſs, and the difference between the length of the longeſt and ſhorteſt day more or leſs, in proportion to the latitude of the place; both the obliquity and difference in the length of the days increaſing with the latitude. This poſition of the ſphere is repreſented Plate I. Fig. 4. where Z is the zenith and N the nadir, P the north and S the ſouth pole, H O the horizon, Æ Q the equinoctial, a, b, the tropic of Cancer, and c, d, the tropic of Capricorn. You obſerve that H O, the horizon, cuts the equi-

noctial

noctial and two tropics obliquely; and as the apparent motion of all the heavenly bodies is nearly parallel to these circles, they muſt all riſe and ſet in an oblique direction.

DIALOGUE VII.

Explaining the different Syſtems of the World, and the Motions of the Earth.

1. *Of the different Syſtems of the World.*

S. WHAT is meant by the word ſyſtem?

M. It has ſeveral ſenſes when applied to different arts and ſciences; but in aſtronomy it means no more than an hypotheſis, or ſuppoſition of a certain order or arrangement of the ſeveral parts of the univerſe, in order to account for all the appearances of the heavenly bodies, their motions, changes, &c.

S. How many ſyſtems of this kind are there?

M. Three: the Ptolemaic, Tychonic, and Pythagorean or Copernican ſyſtem.

S. On what principles is the Ptolemaic ſyſtem founded?

M. It ſuppoſes that the earth is immoveably fixed in the center of the univerſe; that the ſun, the moon, the planets, and the ſtars, all revolve round it, from eaſt to weſt, in 24 hours, and that theſe heavenly objects are placed in the following order: the Moon, Mercury, Venus, the Sun, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, the Fixed Stars, and, above all theſe, the Primum Mobile, or the imaginary ſphere which gives motion to all the reſt.

S. Why is it called the Ptolemaic ſyſtem?

M. Becauſe it was invented by Claudius Ptolemy, a celebrated aſtronomer of Peluſium in Egypt, where he made his obſervations.

S. Is this ſyſtem ſufficient to account for the motions of the heavenly bodies?

M. No. The apparent motions of the planets themſelves cannot be accounted for, without having recourſe to ſo much celeſtial machinery, as will never be admitted by any reaſonable perſon; and the motions of the ſatellites, or

moons, attending ſome of the planets, cannot be explained even with thoſe contrivances.

S. How came it to be eſtabliſhed, if it is not ſufficient to anſwer the purpoſe?

M. It was invented and adhered to chi fly, becauſe it ſeemed to correſpond with the ſenſible appearances of the celeſtial motions. They took it for granted, that the motions which thoſe bodies appeared to have, were ſuch as they truly and really performed; and, not imagining any motion in the earth, nor being appriſed of the diſtinction between abſolute, relative, and apparent motion, they were incapable of making an adequate judgment of theſe matters; ſo that for want of the proper aſſiſtance which after-ages produced, they were under the neceſſity of being miſled by their own ſenſes. They had not the leaſt notion of any other ſyſtem; nor did they imagine there was any other world beſides the earth on which they lived. They were perſuaded that all things were made for the uſe of man; that all the ſtars were fixed in one concave ſphere, at an equal diſtance from the earth; and that the primum mobile, or firſt mover, was circumſcribed by the empyrean heaven, of a cubic form, and which they ſuppoſed to be the celeſtial paradiſe, or the bliſsful abode of departed ſpirits.

S. What is the Tychonic ſyſtem?

M. It is an emendation of the Ptolemaic, made by Tycho Brahe, a celebrated aſtronomer of Denmark. He was abundantly convinced that every part of the Ptolemaic hypotheſis could not be true; but not being able to reconcile himſelf to the motion of the earth, invented a new ſyſtem. He ſuppoſed the earth to have no motion, and that the ſun and moon revolved about it in 24 hours, as in the Ptolemaic ſyſtem; that Mercury, Venus, Jupiter, and Saturn, revolved about the ſun as a center; and that the fixed ſtars were placed in a concave ſphere, which revolved about the earth. Some time after this hypotheſis had been propoſed it received an addition, by allowing the earth a motion round its own axis, in order to account for the diurnal phænomena of the heavenly bodies; but it was ſtill incapable of anſwering the purpoſes for which it was formed, and, at the ſame time, incumbered with ſuch ſtrange and unreaſonable ſuppoſitions, as cannot be admitted by a true philoſopher.

S. As both theſe hypotheſes are falſe, that you call the Copernican ſyſtem muſt be true, unleſs we have no proper ſyſtem of the world.

M. You are certainly right. The Copernican ſyſtem is founded on demonſtrative proofs, and accounts for all the phænomena of the heavenly bodies in a very natural manner.

According to this ſyſtem the ſun is placed in the center, and the planets and comets ſuppoſed to revolve round it at different periods of time, and in orbits at different diſtances from it.

Mercury, in an orbit of about 64,000,000 miles in diameter, revolves about the ſun in the ſpace of 87 days, 23 hours, and 16 minutes.

Venus, whoſe orbit is about 118,000,000 miles in diameter, revolves about the ſun in 224 days, 16 hours, and 49 minutes.

The Earth finiſhes its revolution round the ſun in 365 days, 5 hours, 49 minutes, in an orbit of about 164,000,000 miles in diameter.

Mars, in an orbit of 248,000,000 miles in diameter, revolves round the ſun in 686 days, 23 hours, 27 minutes.

Jupiter, whoſe orbit is vaſtly extended beyond that of Mars, it being 850,000,000 miles in diameter, takes up 4332 days, 12 hours, 20 minutes, or almoſt 12 years, in finiſhing one revolution round the ſun.

Saturn takes up more than double the time of Jupiter in finiſhing one revolution round the ſun, it being no leſs than 10761 days, 14 hours, 36 minutes, or nearly thirty years; and the diameter of its orbit is 1560,000,000 miles.

The Georgium Sidus (diſcovered in 1781, by Dr. Herſchel) revolves round the ſun in an orbit which is 3114 millions of miles in diameter, and completes its revolution in 30445 days, 18 hours, or ſomewhat more than 83 years.

The comets revolve about the ſun in different directions and different periods of time, in prodigiouſly eccentric orbits.

Four of the above planets, viz. the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, have ſatellites or moons revolving about them as the centers of their motion.

The Earth has only one ſatellite or moon revolving about it. The diameter of the moon's orbit is 480,000 miles,

and ſhe finiſhes her revolution in about 27 days, 7 hours, 43 minutes.

Jupiter has four ſatellites or moons circulating round him. The firſt finiſhes its revolution in 1 day, 18 hours, 27 minutes; the ſecond in 3 days, 13 hours, 13 minutes; the third in 7 days, 3 hours, 42 minutes; and the fourth in 16 days, 16 hours, 32 minutes.

Saturn has ſeven moons which revolve round him in the following periods of time: the firſt, or that neareſt the body of the planet, in 22 hours, 40 minutes; the ſecond, in 1 day, 8 hours, 53 minutes; the third in 1 day, 21 hours, 19 minutes; the fourth in 2 days, 17 hours, 41 minutes; the fifth in 4 days, 13 hours, 47 minutes; the ſixth in 15 days, 22 hours, 41 minutes; the ſeventh in 79 days, 22 hours, 41 minutes.

The Georgium Sidus has two moons, of which the firſt completes its revolution in 8 days, 17 hours, 1 minute; and the ſecond in 13 days, 11 hours, 5 minutes.

The planet Saturn is alſo ſurrounded by a thin broad rim, as an artificial globe is by its horizon.

S. What is this ring ſuppoſed to be?

M. It is impoſſible to determine; ſome have conjectured that it is the fragments or ruins of its original exterior ſhell, the reſt of which is fallen down on the body of the planet; but modern aſtronomers think it moſt probable that it conſiſts of a vaſt number of ſatellites, which revolve in, and enlighten that region.

S. What are the diameters of the planets?

M. The diameter of Mercury is 2782 miles; of Venus 6637; of the Earth 7964; of the Moon 2180; of Mars 3617; of Jupiter 76982; of Saturn 68238; of the Georgium Sidus 34217; and of the Sun 763000.

S. What are the comets?

M. They are ſolid opaque bodies, with long tranſparent tails iſſuing from that ſide which is oppoſite to the ſun.

S. Why are the comets conſidered as part of the ſolar ſyſtem?

M. Becauſe, like the planets, they revolve about the ſun; but this revolution is performed in ſuch eccentric orbits, that they are many years, ſome of them many centuries, before it is finiſhed.

S. How many comets are there?

M. Their number is very much greater than that of the planets which move in the vicinity of the ſun. It has been aſcertained from the accounts given by hiſtorians and late obſervations that more than 450 had been ſeen previous to the year 1771; but the number of comets whoſe orbits are ſettled with ſufficient accuracy to prove their identity when they may appear again is not more than fifty-nine, reckoning as late as the year above mentioned. The aſtronomy of comets, however, is yet in its infancy; there has not been time ſufficient, ſince the firſt obſervations for determining their motions, periods, &c. were made, to render this part of the ſcience complete.

2. *Of the Motion of the Earth.*

M. The earth has two different motions; one round its axis, from weſt to eaſt, which is performed in 24 hours; and the other in its orbit round the ſun, between the planets Venus and Mars, which is finiſhed in the ſpace of a ſolar year: the former produces the viciſſitudes of day and night, with the apparent motion of the heavenly bodies from eaſt to weſt, and the latter the change of the ſeaſons.

S. I can eaſily conceive, that, if the earth revolves round its axis, from weſt to eaſt, in 24 hours, the heavenly bodies muſt appear to move the contrary way, viz. from eaſt to weſt; and conſequently riſe in the former and ſet in the latter; but I cannot comprehend how the earth's motion round the ſun can be productive of the regular change of the ſeaſons, and ſhould therefore be glad if you would explain it.

M. Very readily; and in order to this it muſt be obſerved, that if a globe or ball be ſuſpended by a thread from the cieling of a room before a candle placed on a table, one half of it will be illuminated and the other not. If the globe be ſuſpended at one of its poles, and placed in a direction level with the flame of the candle, the horizontal rays iſſuing from the luminary, will ſtrike the globe in the middle or equinoctial, and the circle which terminates the enlightened and darkened hemiſpheres, generally called the circle of illumination, will paſs through

the poles of the earth, cutting all the parallels of latitude at right angles; and were this the poſition of the earth, her motion round the ſun would not be productive of any change in the ſeaſons: the days and nights would be always equal in every part of the globe, except directly under each pole, where the ſun would appear to move continually round the horizon without ever ſetting. But the great Author of nature has thought proper that the earth ſhould not move in the plane of the equinoctial, but in that of the ecliptic; and as the plane of the ecliptic is inclined to that of the equinoctial in an angle of 23 deg. 29 min. therefore the axis of the earth, which is perpendicular to the plane of the equinoctial, muſt be inclined to the plane of her orbit in an angle of 66 deg. 31 min. being the complement of 23 deg. 29 min.

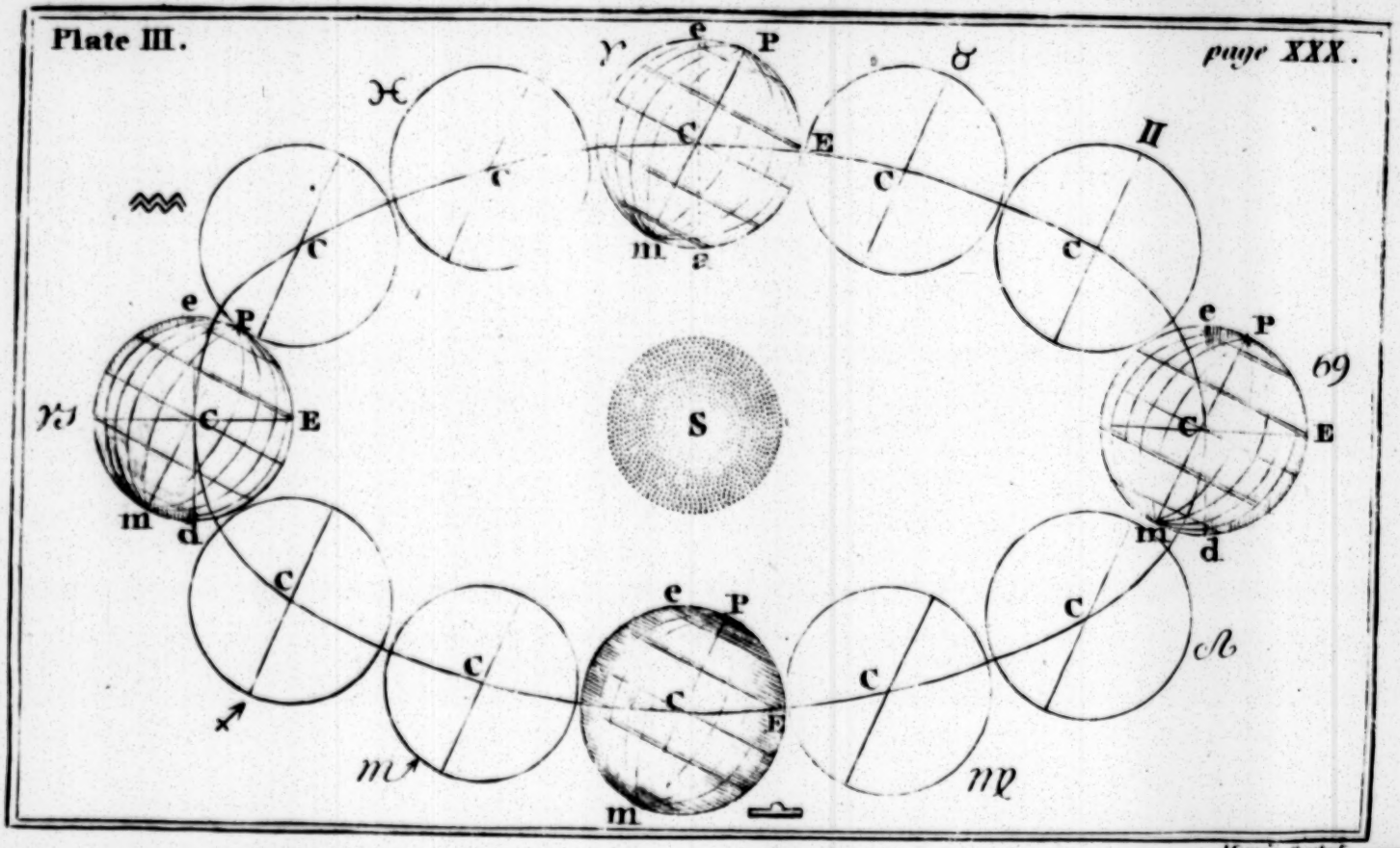
Now as the earth always moves with its axis parallel to itſelf, and always inclined in the above angle to the plane of its orbit, the northern parts will one time of the year be more turned towards the ſun, and conſequently more enlightened than the ſouthern, and the other part of the year the ſouthern parts will enjoy the ſame advantage. Hence the various alterations of heat and cold of the length and ſhortneſs of the days, will enſue in the courſe of the revolution of the earth about the ſun, which will occaſion all the variety of ſeaſons, as ſpring, ſummer, autumn, and winter.

S. I have now ſome faint idea how the changes of the ſeaſons are produced by the revolution of the earth round the ſun; but ſhould be very glad if you would endeavour to render it ſtill more eaſy to be underſtood.

M. Nothing in my power ſhall be omitted, and in order to this I have repreſented the whole by a figure, (ſee Plate III.) in which S is the ſun, C, C, C, C, C, &c. the earth's orbit, ſeen at a diſtance, and the eye elevated a little above it. The earth is repreſented in the firſt point of each of the twelve ſigns, as marked in the figure, with the twelve months annexed; e the pole and e d the axis of the ecliptic, always perpendicular to the plane of the orbit. P the north pole of the world, m the ſouth pole, and P C m its axis, about which the earth's diurnal revolution is performed. P C E is the angle of the earth's axis to the

plane

Plate III.





plane of her orbit, the ſame parallelism being always preſerved.

When the earth is in the firſt point of Libra, the ſun appears in the oppoſite point of the ecliptic, at Aries, which happens about the 21ſt of March, and when the earth is in Aries, the ſun will appear in Libra, about the 22d of September. At both theſe times the edge of the enlightened hemiſphere is parallel to the equinoctial colure, and paſſes through the two poles of the world, dividing each parallel of latitude into two equal parts; conſequently the diurnal parallel of every inhabitant on the ſurface of the earth, will, at either of theſe ſeaſons, be half in the illuminated, and half in the obſcure part of the earth, therefore the day and night will be equal in all places.

Let us conceive the earth to have moved from Libra to Capricorn, its axis or line of direction keeping the ſame parallelism, will now coincide with the ſolſtitial colure, and the edge of the diſc being perpendicular thereto, will paſs through e, the pole of the ecliptic. In this ſituation of the earth, all places within the northern polar circle are illuminated during the whole diurnal revolution, at which time the inhabitants ſee the ſun for more than twenty-four hours; but the parallel of thoſe who live under the polar circle touches the edge of the diſc, and therefore the ſun touches their horizon about midnight; every other parallel interſects the edge of the diſc, and as the illuminated parts of the parallels in the northern hemiſphere are greater than the obſcure parts, the days at this ſeaſon, which is called the ſummer ſolſtice, and happens about the 21ſt of June, are longer than the nights, and this difference between the days and nights is more or leſs, in proportion as the place is ſituated nearer to or farther from the polar circle.

While the earth is moving from Libra through Capricorn to Aries, which is performed in ſix months, the ſun will appear to move from Aries through Cancer to Libra, and the north pole being all that time in the illuminated hemiſphere will have ſix months continual day; while all the other parts of the northern hemiſphere, between the equator and the arctic circle, will perceive the days gradually lengthen during the three firſt months, and ſhorten in the ſame proportion during the three latter; but while the earth paſſes from Aries through Cancer to Libra, and the

ſun appears to move from Libra through Capricorn to Aries, the north pole will be in the obſcure part, and conſequently involved in continual night, the ſouth pole at the ſame time enjoying continual day.

When the earth is in Cancer, the ſun appears in Capricorn. At this ſeaſon the nights, to all the inhabitants of the northern hemiſphere will exceed the days as much as the days before, when the earth was in the oppoſite point of her orbit, exceeded the nights. For the nocturnal arches, or obſcure parts of their parallels, are here equal to the illuminated parts when the earth was in Capricorn, and the illuminated parts are here no greater than the obſcure parts were then.

S. I thank you, Sir. I now plainly ſee the reaſon why the changes obſervable in the ſeaſons naturally reſult from the motion of the earth round the ſun; but I have heard it aſſerted, that the ſummer with us is ſeveral days longer than the winter. I ſhall therefore be glad to know whether this be true; and, if ſo, the cauſe of this difference.

M. The aſſertion is true, and I will endeavour to explain the cauſe of this inequality. By ſummer is meant the time in which the earth moves in her orbit from the vernal to the autumnal equinox; and, by winter, the time in which it paſſes from the autumnal to the vernal equinox. It is evident that the ecliptic upon the globe is divided into ſix northern and ſix ſouthern ſigns, and that it interſects the equator in the points Aries and Libra. In our ſummer the ſun's apparent motion is through the ſix northern, and in the winter through the ſix ſouthern ſigns; yet the ſun is 186 days, 11 hours, 51 minutes, in paſſing through the firſt ſix, and only 178 days, 17 hours, 58 minutes, in paſſing through the ſix laſt; conſequently our ſummer exceeds the winter by 7 days, 17 hours, 53 minutes.

In order to explain the cauſe of this inequality, it will be neceſſary to obſerve, that the earth's orbit is not a circle but an ellipſis, and that the ſun is placed in one of its foci. This being premiſed, the reaſon for the difference between the lengths of the ſummer and winter will eaſily appear. Let A B C D (Plate IV. Fig. 1.) repreſent the earth's orbit, S the ſun in one of its foci; when the earth is at B, the ſun will appear at H, in the firſt point of Aries, and while the earth moves from B, through C to D, the

Plate IV. page XXXII.

Fig. 1.

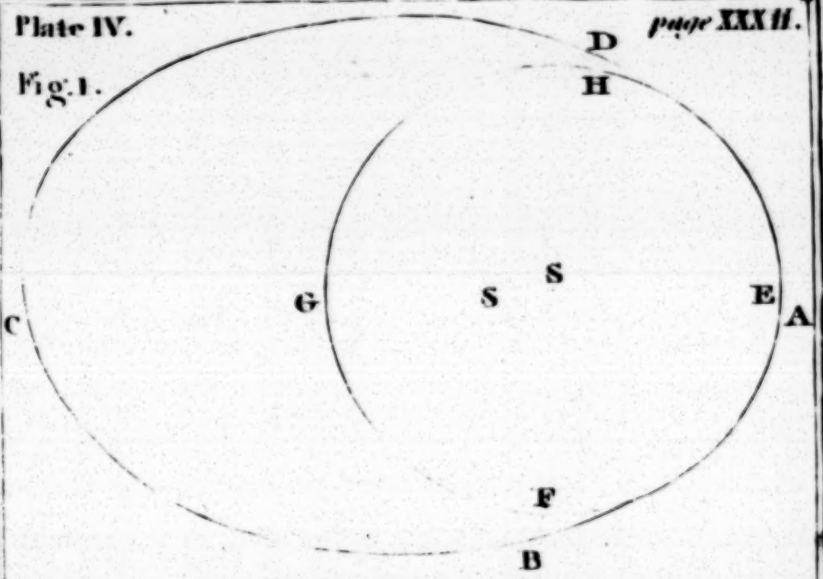
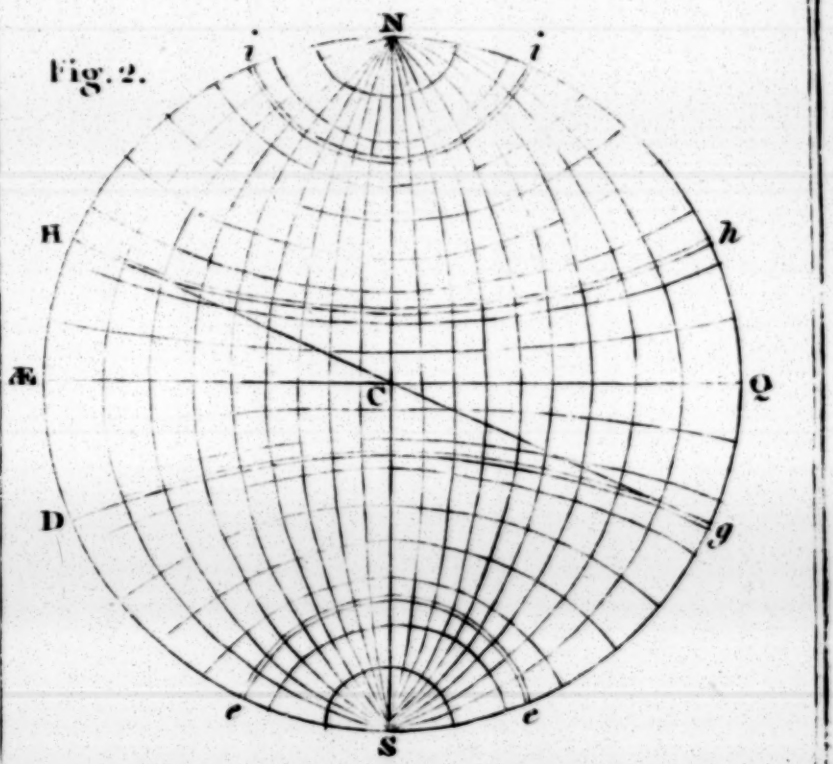


Fig. 2.



the ſun will appear to move from H through E to F, that is through the ſix northern ſigns ♈, ♉, ♊, ♋, ♌, ♍, to ♎. When the earth is at D, the ſun appears at F, in the firſt point of Libra, and as the earth moves from D, through A to B, the ſun will appear to move from F, through G to H, that is through the ſix ſouthern ſigns ♎, ♏, ♐, ♑, ♒, ♓, to Aries at H. Hence the line F H, drawn through the ſun at S, to the firſt point of Libra, divides the celeſtial ecliptic into two equal parts; but the ſame line divides the earth's elliptical orbit A B C D into two unequal parts, the ſun not being in the center, but in one of the foci of this orbit. The greater part B C D is that which the earth deſcribes in ſummer, or when the ſun appears to paſs through the northern ſigns: the leſſer part, D, A, B, is that which the earth deſcribes in winter, when the ſun appears to paſs through the ſouthern ſigns. And from this unequal diviſion of the earth's orbit, the ſummer becomes longer than the winter.

S. Your explanation is extremely eaſy to be underſtood, and I think I comprehend it thoroughly; but it appears to me, that, according to theſe principles, the ſun muſt be nearer to us in the midſt of winter, than in the midſt of ſummer.

M. You are extremely right; this is really the caſe: the ſun's apparent diameter is greater in our winter, than in ſummer, occaſioned by the earth's being nearer to that luminary, when at A, the midſt of winter, than it is when at C, the midſt of ſummer. The ſun's apparent diameter in winter, is 32 min. 47 ſec. in ſummer, 31 min. 40 ſec.

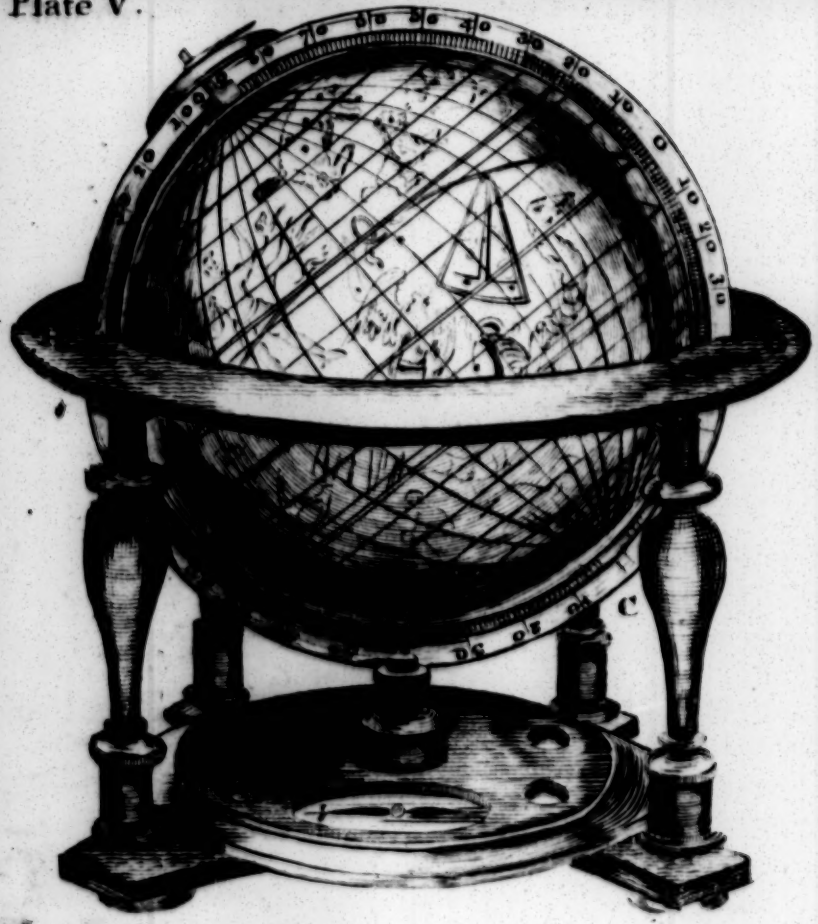
If the mean diſtance of the earth from the ſun be called 1000, its eccentricity will be 17; its greateſt diſtance 1017, and its leaſt diſtance 983.

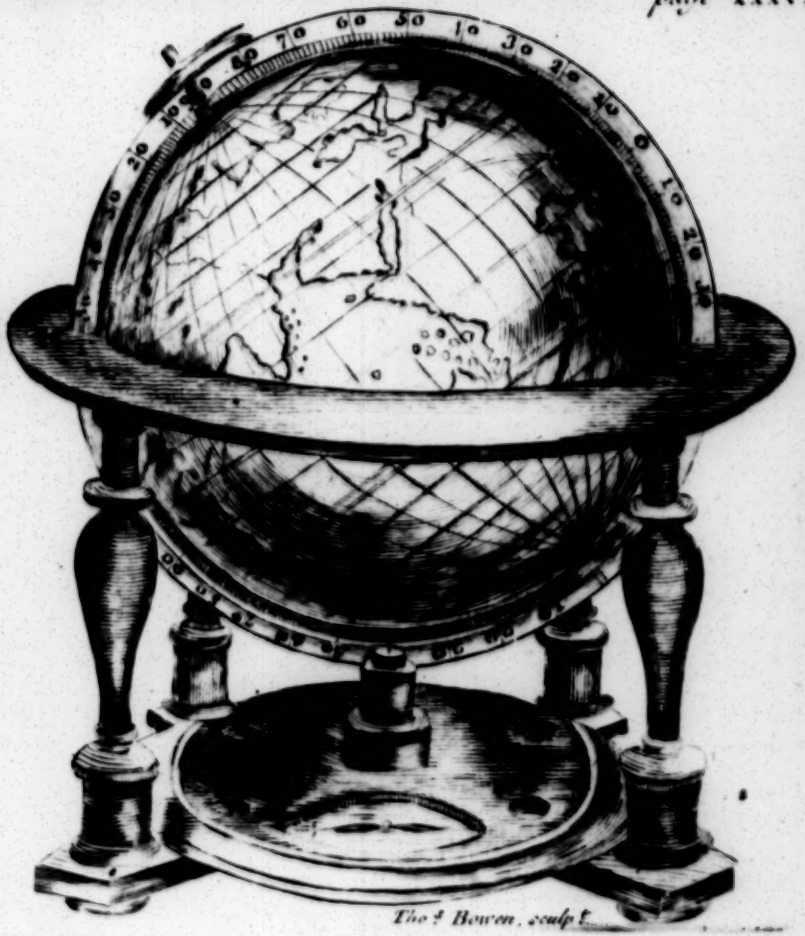
S. You have now, Sir, kindly removed every difficulty; I can eaſily form an idea of the earth's motion, and of all the phænomena that muſt reſult from her moving in an elliptical orbit round the ſun: but ſtill there is one particular which I cannot comprehend, and which I ſhould be very glad if you could explain; it is this: if the earth revolves round her axis, we muſt ſometimes ſtand with our heads downwards; which, according to my apprehenſion, is impoſſible.

M. Your objections will have the ſame force, whether the earth revolves about her axis, or not; provided her form be ſpherical; for our antipodes will ſtand directly oppoſite to us; or, according to our notion, with their heads downwards. But thoſe terms upwards and downwards, have nothing to do with univerſal ſpace: we are kept to the earth's ſurface on all ſides, by the power of its central attraction; which, acting on all bodies, in proportion to their denſities, or quantities of matter, without any regard to their bulk, conſtitutes what we call their weight; and having the ſky over our heads, go where we will, and our feet towards the center of the earth, we call it up, over our heads and down, under our feet; though the ſame right line, which is down to us, through the center, beyond the oppoſite ſurface of the earth, would be up, to the inhabitants of that oppoſite ſide. For the inhabitants at p, m, e, h, s, q, o, Plate I. Fig. 1. ſtand with their feet towards the earth's center, C, and have the ſame figure of ſky, P, M, E, H, S, Q, O, over their heads. Therefore, the point S, is as directly upward to the inhabitant s, on the ſouth pole, as P is to the inhabitant p, on the north pole. Alſo, the inhabitant e, about the northern extremity of Peru, will have E over his head, while the inhabitant at q, will have Q in his zenith. Each of theſe obſervers is ſurpriſed, that his oppoſite, or antipode, can ſtand with his head hanging downwards. But let either go to the other, and he will tell him, that he ſtood as upright and firm on the place where he was, as he now ſtands where he is. To all thoſe obſervers, the ſun, moon, and ſtars, ſeem to turn round the points P and S, as the poles of the axis, P C S; becauſe the earth does really turn round the mathematical line, p C s, as round an axis, of which p is the north pole.

We cannot, indeed, help imagining, when we ſee an artificial globe or ball, ſuſpended in a room, that it has an upper or an under ſide, and immediately extend the ſame idea to the earth; whence we conclude, that it is as impoſſible for perſons to ſtand on the under ſide of the earth, as for pebbles to lie on the under ſide of the ſuſpended globe; which inſtantly fall down from it to the ground. But this is owing to a very different cauſe: the attraction

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Thos Bowen, sculp.t

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of the earth is too ſtrong for the attraction of the globe, and conſequently draws them to itſelf. This would be the very caſe with our earth, if a globe, much bigger that itſelf, was placed near it; for its attraction would pull away every thing from the ſide of the earth next to it; and only thoſe on the oppoſite, or upper ſide, could keep upon its ſurface. But there is no larger globe near enough to our earth, to overcome its central attraction; and therefore it has no ſuch thing as an upper or an under ſide; for all bodies near its ſurface, even to the moon, gravitate towards its center.

DIALOGUE VIII.

The Uſe of the Globes.

M. IN order, my dear pupil, to render my inſtructions for the uſe of the globes more eaſy, I have drawn the figures of both globes, Plate V. and deſire you will keep your eye upon them, while I endeavour to explain what is meant in every particular.

It has been already proved, that the earth is of a ſpherical figure, and hence geographers have choſen an artificial globe, as the moſt appoſite inſtrument to delineate on its ſurface, the continents, iſlands, oceans, ſeas, lakes, rivers, &c. of our terraqueous world, in their natural form, order, diſtance, and ſituation. So that an artificial terreſtrial globe, may be conſidered as this earth in miniature.

Whoever views the heavens in a clear night, will ſoon perceive, that the ſtars appear to the eye, as if they were all placed in a concave ſphere. And, for this reaſon, aſtronomers have thought the external ſurface of an artificial globe, a very proper inſtrument for laying down the ſtars in their proper poſition and diſtance from one another, and in their ſeveral magnitudes. Conſequently, a celeſtial globe is a lively repreſentation of the ſtarry heavens.

S. You obſerved that the ſtars appeared to the eye as if placed in a concave ſphere; how then can the convex ſurface of a globe repreſent its internal concavity?

M. In order to form a true idea, how the convex ſurface of a celeſtial globe becomes a lively repreſentation of the heavenly ſphere, you muſt imagine the globe to be tranſ-

parent, and yourſelf placed in the center of it; for then the globe being fixed in its poſition, each ſtar pointed on the ſurface, will be in a right-line between the eye of the obſerver, and its correſpondent ſtar in the heaven. Nor is this ſuppoſition ſo extravagant, as at firſt ſight it may appear, for the earth itſelf, when compared with the immenſe diſtance of the fixed ſtars, is nothing more than a point, and may be conſidered as the center of the univerſe.

S. You have ſufficiently removed the difficulty, and will therefore pleaſe to proceed with your deſcription?

M. On the ſurface of the terraqueous globe, the external form of the whole earth, with its ſeas, oceans, &c. is delineated, in a true proportion, the image of each continent, iſland, &c. taking up the ſame ſpace on the artificial globe, in proportion to its magnitude, as the real continent, iſland, &c. takes up on the ſurface of the earth.

On the convex ſuperficies of the celeſtial globe, all the ſtars (at leaſt all the remarkable ones) that decorate the face of night, are inſerted in their proper places; and as the number of the fixed ſtars would render it too difficult to diſtinguiſh them readily from one another, aſtronomers have divided them into ſeveral aſteriſms, or conſtellations, each of which contains a ſyſtem of ſeveral ſtars, which are ſeen near each other in the heavens. Theſe conſtellations were formed in the early ages of the world, by the firſt obſervers of the heavens, of whom Chiron, the Centaur, is thought to have been the firſt, and who completed his work about the time of the Argonautic expedition, 1225 years before the chriſtian æra. Accordingly, his conſtellations were almoſt all of them ſymbolical hiſtories of perſons and things, famous in that remarkable undertaking. Thus, for inſtance, Aries, the ram, was placed among the aſteriſms, in commemoration of his golden fleece, and was made the firſt of the ſigns, as being the enſign of the ſhip, in which Jaſon ſailed to Colchis. The number of theſe conſtellations has been from time to time augmented, and the number of the ſtars in each increaſed, as aſtronomy advanced towards perfection.

S. How many conſtellations are there now delineated on the celeſtial globe?

M. Sixty-ſeven; containing 3001 ſtars; ſo that every ſtar

ſtar within the compaſs of our horizon, may be eaſily known. And hence it appears, that globes are not only the moſt proper contrivances for accounting for all the motions, real or apparent, of the heavenly bodies; but for conveying the cleareſt ideas neceſſary to be formed, in order to underſtand thoroughly, geography, navigation, aſtronomy, and their dependent ſciences.

But in order to lay down, in their true ſituation and order, the ſtars upon the celeſtial globe, and to deſcribe the different terminations of the land and ſea on the terreſtrial, it was abſolutely neceſſary to have ſome fixed or certain points, and lines, from which they might count and meaſure; and hence originated the ſeveral circles, deſcribed on the ſurface of the globes, and which are the ſame with thoſe I have already defined in the ſecond dialogue; ſo that I ſhall now proceed to deſcribe the ſeveral appurtenances belonging to the globes.

1. The horizon is that great broad circle which divides the globe into two equal parts, called the upper and lower hemiſpheres. It is diſtinguiſhed into two kinds, ſenſible, and rational. The ſenſible, or rational horizon, is that circle which bounds the utmoſt proſpect of our ſight, when we view the heavens from any part of the ſurface of the earth, or ſea. The rational, or true horizon, is that which bounds the ſight, ſuppoſing the eye placed in the center of the earth, and beholding half the entire firmament at one view. This is repreſented by the upper ſurface of the frame, H, O, in which the globe is fixed, having two notches, one in the northern, and the other in the ſouthern part of it, for the brazen meridian, hereafter deſcribed, to ſtand in. See Plate V.

This circle is of great uſe in determining the times of the riſing and ſetting of the ſun, or ſtars, and their continuance above the horizon, and to ſhew us the reaſon of the increaſe, and decreaſe of the length of the day and night, &c. in all places on the earth, by inſpection.

2. The next great circle is the meridian, repreſented by the brazen frame or circle, in which the globe is ſuſpended by the two wires, which repreſent the two poles, or the two extremities of the axis on which the globe turns. This circle divides the globe into two equal parts, called the eaſtern and weſtern hemiſpheres; and, from its being made

made of braſs, is generally called the brazen meridian. It is divided into four equal parts, each containing 90 deg. two of which begin at the equator, and increaſe towards each pole; while the other two begin at the poles, and increaſe towards the equator, or equinoctial.

3. The equinoctial, or equator, is the next great circle. This divides the globe into two equal parts, called the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres.

4. The ecliptic, divided into twelve equal parts, called ſigns, and each ſign into 30 deg. divides the globe into two equal parts, called the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres, with regard to the latitudes of the fixed ſtars and planets. If a broad ſpace of about 8 deg. be added on each ſide of the ecliptic, it will repreſent the zodiac, in which are the twelve aſteriſms, moſt of which having the reſemblance of ſome living creature, occaſioned its name; ζωον, in Greek, ſignifying an animal. In this ſpace the motion of the moon and that of all the planets is performed.

5. The quadrant of altitude is a narrow, thin, plate of pliable braſs, exactly anſwering to one fourth part of the meridian, and divided into 90 deg. At one end it has a notch, nut, and ſcrew, to faſten it to the meridian in the zenith. It turns upon a pivot at the bottom of the nut, and ſupplies the place of an infinite number of vertical or azimuth circles.

6. The hour circle is a flat-ring of braſs, ſo contrived that it may be taken off and fixed about either poles of the globe; and when it is thus faſtened to the brazen meridian, the pole becomes its center, and there is fixed at the end of the axis an index, which turns round with the globe, and points out upon the horary circle, the hour, either given or required; for, on its upper ſurface are engraved the 24 hours of the natural day, at equal diſtances from one another; the XII. next the zenith repreſenting twelve o'clock at noon, and the other, below it, twelve at night; thoſe on the eaſt ſide, the morning, and thoſe on the weſt, the afternoon hours.

Having thus, my dear pupil, deſcribed both globes and their appurtenances, I ſhall proceed to ſhew the manner of ſolving problems, by the help of theſe inſtruments and endeavour

endeavour to ſelect ſuch as more particularly relate to geography.

PROBLEM I.

To find the Latitude of any given Place.

Turn the globe about till the given place lies exactly under the graduated or eaſtern ſide of the brazen meridian, then will the degree of the meridian, directly over it, be the latitude required; which will be north, if the place be ſituated in the northern hemiſphere; if in the ſouthern, it will be ſouth. Thus the latitude f London will be 51 deg. 32 min. N. of Barbadoes, 13 deg. 00 min. N. of the Lizard, 49 deg. 57 min. N. of St. Helena, 16 deg. 00 min. S. and of the Cape of Good Hope, 34 deg. 15 min. S.

PROBLEM II.

To find the Difference of Latitude between any two given Places.

Bring each of the places propoſed to the brazen meridian, obſerving the reſpective degrees over each; and the number of degrees contained between thoſe interſections will be the difference of latitude required. Thus the difference of latitude between the Lizard and Barbadoes, will be 36 deg. 57 min. between Barbadoes and St. Helena, 29 deg. 00 min. and between St. Helena and the Cape of Good Hope, 21 deg. 15 min.

PROBLEM III.

To find the Longitude of any given Place.

Bring the given place to the meridian, and the degree of the equator, cut by the meridian, will be the longitude required: which will be eaſt. if the place be ſituated to the eaſtward of the firſt meridian, and weſt, if ſituated to the weſtward. Thus the longitude of the Lizard will be 5 deg. 14 min. W. the longitude of Barbadoes 59 deg. 50 min. W. of

W. of St. Helena, 5 deg. 53 min. W. and of the Cape of Good Hope, 20 deg. 07 min. E. ſuppoſing London to be the firſt meridian.

S. What do you mean by the firſt meridian?

M. By the firſt meridian is meant the place upon the equator, cut by the meridian of ſome place from which the longitude is reckoned. This meridian is arbitrary, and accordingly the longitude has been reckoned from different meridians, by different geographers. Ptolemy placed it one degree to the weſtward of the Fortunate or Canary Iſlands; ſome have made it to paſs through St. Nicholas one of the Cape de Verd Iſlands; ſome through St. Jago, another of the Cape de Verd Iſlands; and others through Corva, one of the Weſtern Iſlands. The Dutch begin the longitude at the meridian of Teneriffe, one of the Canary Iſlands; the French from the meridian of Ferro, another of the Canary Iſlands; and the Engliſh from the meridian of London. From this diverſity of firſt meridians, the longitude of places frequently differ, on different maps and globes, however accurately they may be laid down; but the difference of longitude, which is the principal thing required, will be the ſame in all, provided the places are laid down with equal accuracy. It is therefore of very little conſequence where the firſt meridian is placed; though, if geographers could all agree to begin their longitudes from the firſt meridian, it would, doubtleſs, ſave young ſtudents in geography a great deal of trouble.

PROBLEM IV.

To find the Difference of Longitude between any two given Places.

Bring each of the given places ſucceſſively to the brazen meridian, and obſerve where each meridian cuts the equator; count the number of degrees, &c. contained in the arch of the equator intercepted between them, which will be the difference of longitude required. Thus the difference of longitude between the Lizard and Barbadoes, will be 54 deg. 36 min. W. between the Lizard and St. Helena, 0 deg. 39 min. W. and between the Lizard and the Cape of Good Hope, 25 deg. 21 min. E.

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PROBLEM V.

To find the Diſtance between any two given Places on the Globe.

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over the two places, and the number of degrees, &c. intercepted between them will be the diſtance required. Thus the diſtance between the Lizard and Barbadoes will be 56 deg. 16 min. and between Barbadoes and St. Helena 59 deg. 04 min.

PROBLEM VI.

The Hour of the Day or Night, at any Place being given, to find the correſponding Hour at another Place.

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the hour circle to the given hour; turn the globe about, till the place at which the hour is required lie under the ſame meridian; then will the index point out the hour at the place required. Thus it will be found, that when it is 12 o'clock at London, it will be 39 min. paſt 11 at the Lizard; 1 min. after 8 at Barbadoes; 34 min. after 11 at St. Helena; and 7 min. after 1 at the Cape of Good Hope.

This problem is nothing more than the finding the difference of longitude between any two places, and reducing that difference into time, by dividing it by 15; for that difference being either added to, or ſubtracted from, the given hour, as the required place is ſituated to the eaſt or weſt of the meridian of the given place, will be the time required. Thus the difference of longitude between London and Barbadoes is 59 deg. 50 min. W. which, reduced into time, is 3 hours, 59 min. and becauſe Barbadoes lies to the weſtward of London; therefore, ſubtract 3 hours, 59 min. from 12 hours, and the remainder will be eight hours, 1 min. the time it is by the clock, when it is noon at London.

S. Why do you divide the difference of longitude by 15, in order to reduce it into time.

M. Becauſe the earth turns round its axis in 24 hours, conſequently

conſequently its motion is at the rate of 15 deg. an hour; for 360, the number of degrees in every great circle, being divided by 24, the number of hours quotes 15: conſequently, if the difference of longitude be given in degrees, it may be reduced into time, by dividing it by 15; or, if the difference of longitude be given in time, it may be reduced into degrees, by multiplying the hours, &c. by 15.

PROBLEM VII.

To find the Bearing of any given Place from another.

Elevate one of the poles of the globe, until one of the given places be in the zenith; ſtay the globe in that poſition, and lay the quadrant of altitude over the other place, and it will ſhew on the horizon the point of the compaſs the latter bears from the former.

PROBLEM VIII.

The Day of the Month being given, to find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic.

Find the day of the month in the calendar on the horizon; and right againſt it is the ſign the ſun is in, and the degree of that ſign. Thus, on the 12th of May, the ſun will be 22 deg. 4 minutes of Taurus; on the 22d of Auguſt, in 29 deg. 32 min. of Leo, &c.

PROBLEM IX.

The Sun's Place in the Ecliptic being given to find his Declination.

Bring the ſun's place to the eaſtern ſide of the brazen meridian, and the deg. in the meridian will be the ſun's declination. Thus, on the 23d of May, the ſun's declination will be about 20 deg. 10 min. N. on the 23d of Auguſt, about 11 deg. 13 min. N. and on the 23d of December 23 deg. 29 min. S.

PRO-

PROBLEM X.

To rectify the Globe to the Latitude of any Place.

If the place be in the north latitude, raiſe the north pole; if in ſouth latitude, raiſe the ſouth pole of the globe, until the degree of the given latitude, reckoned on the brazen meridian under the elevated globe, cuts the plane of the horizon; the ſame deg. reckoned from the equinoctial, on the upper part of the brazen meridian, will be the zenith; and the upper part of the frame, the horizon of the place. Fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and the globe will be properly rectified.

PROBLEM XI.

The Latitude of the Place, and the Day of the Month, or Sun's Place in the Ecliptic being given, to find the Beginning and End of the Morning and Evening Twilight.

It has been found by obſervation, that the ſolar rays are viſible, until the ſun has deſcended 18 degrees below the horizon, when total darkneſs begins.

The morning twilight, or day-break, commences when the ſun comes within 18 degrees of the horizon, and continues until ſun-riſing.

S. What is the cauſe of the twilight, by which I ſuppoſe you mean, that light which we perceive before the ſun riſes, and after it ſets?

M. This illumination of the heavens, after the ſun is ſet, and before he riſes, proceeds from the reſiſtance which the ſolar rays meet with in paſſing through the atmoſphere; by which means they are ſtrongly reflected back upon us, and therefore we receive the benefit of the light of that luminary for ſome time before he riſes, and after he ſets; and as this intermediate ſtate between the day and the night is of a longer or ſhorter duration, in proportion, as the different heights of the atmoſphere, it follows, that during the winter, when the air is condenſed by cold, and conſequently the atmoſphere ſunk, the twilights are ſooner over; on the contrary, in the ſummer ſeaſon, when the air

is rarified by the heat of the ſun, the atmoſphere is higher, and conſequently the twilight longer. Hence alſo we ſee the reaſon for what has been often obſerved; I mean, that the evening twilight is generally longer than that in the morning, eſpecially in the ſummer time: for the ſun, by his rays, during his continuance above the horizon, has elevated the reflecting particles of the atmoſphere.

This particular affords us one ſtriking inſtance of the great benefit of the atmoſphere encompaſſing our earth; for, was it not for this, the ſun, immediately before his ſetting, and after his riſing, would ſhine as bright as at noon, and the moment he deſcended below the horizon at his ſetting, it would be as dark as at midnight, continuing ſo until the moment he aſcended in the morning, in all the blaze of meridian day. This ſudden tranſition, from the greateſt darkneſs to the greateſt light, would be very inconvenient to mankind. Nor is this all; it is by the reflection of the atmoſphere that the rays of the ſun illuminate the whole face of the heavens, and give it that bright and ſplendid appearance we ſo juſtly admire. For, was the atmoſphere annihilated, that part only of the heavens, in which the ſun appears, would ſeem to ſhine, and a ſpectator, on turning his back towards the ſun, would immediately perceive it as dark as night, and the ſmalleſt ſtars would appear as they now do, in a clear night; becauſe there would be no ſubſtance to reflect the ſolar rays to our eyes; nor would our artificial lights be of any great ſervice to us, during the abſence of the ſun.

I have hitherto only conſidered the twilight as the rays of the ſun himſelf, reflected to us from the earth's atmoſphere: but ſhall now add, that the body of the ſun is always encompaſſed with a ſphere of light, which being of a much larger circumference than the ſun, part of it might riſe before him, and part of it ſet after him: this, conſequently, lengthens the twilight by illuminating our air, when the ſun is depreſſed too low to reach it with his own light. Perhaps this is alſo the cauſe why the ſun is preceded by a luminous ſegment of a circle in the eaſt, before his riſing, different from the light reflected by the atmoſphere, from the body of the ſun. The ſame appearance may be obſerved in the weſt, after the ſetting of that luminary.

luminary.—Let us now return to the ſolution of the problem.

Having rectified the globe to the latitude, fixed the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and ſet the index of the hour circle to 12 at noon, turn the globe about, until the point oppoſite to the ſun's place, be 28 degrees above the weſtern ſide of the horizon; then will the index point out upon the horary circle, the beginning of the morning twilight: and if the globe be ſtill turned about its axis, until the ſame oppoſite point to the ſun's place cut the weſtern limb of the horizon, the difference between the hour pointed out before, and in the preſent ſituation, will ſhew the duration of the twilight. If the globe be ſtill turned about, until the point in the ecliptic, oppoſite to the ſun, be deſcended 18 degrees below the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, the index will point out, on the hour circle, the end of the twilight in the evening.

Thus, upon the twelfth of May, 1772, when the ſun is in 22 deg. 6 min. of Taurus, the beginning of the morning twilight will be at 21 min. after 1, and the end of the evening twilight at 39 min. after 10, after it has continued 3 hours 1 min. On the 22d of Auguſt the morning twilight will begin at 39 min. after 2, and the evening twilight will end at 21 minutes after 10.

PROBLEM XII.

The Latitude of the Place, and the Day of the Month being given, to find at what Time the Sun will riſe and ſet, and the Length of the Day and Night.

Having rectified the globe, bring the ſun's place to the meridian, and ſet the index of the hour circle to 12 at noon, turn about the globe, until the ſun's place in the ecliptic coincides with the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and the index will point out, on the hour circle, the time of the ſun's riſing; and the globe being turned about, until the ſun's place arrives at the weſtern ſide of the horizon, the index will ſhew the time of the ſun's ſetting. The latter being doubled, will ſhew the length of the day, and the double of the former, the length of the night.

Thus

Thus, on the 12th of May, the ſun will riſe at 22 min. after 4, and ſet 38 min. after 7. The firſt doubled, viz. 8 hours, 44 min. will be the length of the night; and the double of the former, namely, 15 hours, 16 min. will be the length of the day.

When the declination of the ſun becomes equal to the complement of the latitude of the place, and they are both of the ſame name, the ſun does not deſcend below the horizon, but paſſes the meridian at noon and midnight; continuing to circulate round in this manner, gradually riſing higher and higher above the horizon, until he arrives to his greateſt declination, when he continues gradually deſcending, until he again reaches the horizon; that is, when his declination becomes equal to the complement of the latitude.

PROBLEM XIII.

To find the Number of Days the Sun conſtantly ſhines at any Place, within the Arctic Circle; at what Time they begin, and at what Time they end; as alſo the Time of his Continuance below the Horizon, at the oppoſite Seaſon of the Year, or the Length of the longeſt Night, and at what Time it begins and ends.

Having elevated the north pole of the globe, according to the latitude of the given place, turn the globe about, until ſome point in the firſt quarter of the ecliptic interſects the meridian in the northern point of the horizon, which will be the ſun's place in the ecliptic, when continual day begins; and right againſt it, in the calendar on the horizon, is the day of the month when this will happen.

If the globe be turned about, until ſome point in the ſecond quarter of the ecliptic interſects the meridian in the ſame point of the horizon, it will ſhew the ſun's place, when the continual day ends; and, conſequently, the day of the month is eaſily found. Thus have we ſolved the firſt part of the problem.

Turn about the globe until ſome point in the third quarter of the ecliptic interſects the meridian, in the ſouthern point

point of the meridian; and this will be the ſun's place, when continual night begins. And by turning about the globe, until ſome point in the fourth quadrant, or quarter of the ecliptic, interſects the meridian in the ſame point of the horizon, it will be the ſun's place when continual night ends.

Thus, at the North Cape, in 71 deg. 38 min. N. the ſun will not ſet, but tranſit the meridian in the northern part of the horizon, on the 12th of May; and from that time continue above the horizon until the 31ſt of July following, or during the interval of 80 natural days: after which he will continue to riſe and ſet until the 15th of November following, when he will but juſt touch the horizon in the moſt ſouthern point, and will not aſcend, but continue below the horizon, until the 27th of January; or, 73 natural days.

So that the longeſt day will be ſeven natural days longer than the longeſt night; a circumſtance ariſing from the eccentricity of the earth's orbit, as we before obſerved in explaining the motion of the earth.

PROBLEM XIV.

The Latitude of the Place, the Day of the Month, and the Sun's Altitude being given, to find the Hour of the Day.

Rectify the globe to the latitude, ſcrew the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, bring the ſun's place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the hour index to 12 at noon; turn the globe about, until the ſun's place cuts the given altitude on the quadrant, either in the eaſtern or weſtern ſemi-circle, according as the obſervation was made, either in the fore, or afternoon; then will the index ſhew the hour of the day required.

Thus, in the latitude of 51 deg. 32 min. on the 12th of May, when the ſun has 40 deg. of altitude in the eaſtern ſemi-circle, or in the forenoon, it will be found, that the obſervation was made at 48 min. after 8 in the morning. On the 22d of Auguſt, when he has 35 deg. in the weſtern ſemi-circle, it will be 8 min. after 3 in the afternoon. On the 13th of November, when he has 12 deg. of altitude in the eaſtern ſemi-circle, it will be 46 min. after 9 in the morning. And on the 20th of February, at 20 deg. of altitude

altitude in the weſtern ſemi-circle, it will be found 24 min. after 2.

PROBLEM XV.

Given the Day of the Month, and Hour of the Day, to find, 1. *In what Places of the Earth the Sun is then riſing.* 2. *In what Places of the Earth he is then ſetting.* 3. *In what Places of the Earth he is then upon the Meridian.* 4. *In what Places it is then Midnight.* 5. *In what Places the Twilight is then juſt viſible.* 6. *In what Places the Twilight is then ending.* 7. *What Zone of the Earth enjoys at that Time nothing but Twilight.* 8. *What is then the Altitude of the Sun in any Part of the illuminated Hemiſphere.* 9. *And what is his depreſſion at the ſame Time, in any Part of the obſcure Hemiſphere of the Earth.*

Find, in the calendar, on the horizon, the ſun's place in the ecliptic, and alſo his declination for the given time; elevate the north pole of the globe, if the ſun have north declination, but the ſouth pole, if the declination be ſouth, until the arch of the meridian, intercepted between the pole and the horizon, be equal to the declination of the ſun at that time: bring London, or whatever place the hour of the day is given for, to the meridian, ſet the index to the given hour, and turn the globe about, until the index points to 12 at noon. Then will 1. The ſun be vertical to that point on the earth whoſe zenith coincides with the ſun's declination; and conſequently, that luminary will be in the nadir, to the oppoſite point in the lower hemiſphere. 2. All thoſe places which are in the weſtern ſemi-circle of the horizon, will have the ſun riſing. 3. The inhabitants of thoſe places of the earth, ſituated in the eaſtern ſemi-circle, will ſee the ſun ſetting. 4. It will be noon to all thoſe people that live under the upper ſemi-circle of the meridian: and 5. It will be midnight to thoſe who live under the oppoſite, or lower ſemi-circle of the meridian. 6. The morning twilight is juſt beginning in thoſe places, which are depreſſed 18 deg. below the weſtern ſemi-circle of the horizon: and, 7. In all thoſe places that are depreſſed 18 deg. below the eaſtern ſemi circle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending, and total darkneſs coming on. 8. In all that zone of the earth, intercepted between that circle,

circle, and another drawn 18 deg. below, but parallel to it, will be wholly in the twilight. 9. If the quadrant of altitude be fixed in that point where the ſun is vertical, and laid over any place, the arch contained between the place and the horizon, will ſhew the height of the ſun at that place. 10. If the ſame arch of the quadrant be continued, ſo as to paſs over any place in the obſcure hemiſphere, the portion of it, intercepted between the place and the horizon, will ſhew the depreſſion of the ſun in that place.

PROBLEM XVI.

To find the Latitude and Longitude of a fixed Star.

In order to have a right idea of this problem, which belongs to the celeſtial globe, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that the latitude of a ſtar in the heavens, and the latitude of a place on the earth, is very different. The latitude of any place, is its diſtance to the north, or ſouth of the equator, or equinoctial; but the latitude of a ſtar, is its neareſt diſtance to the ecliptic; ſo that a ſtar may be to the northward of the equinoctial, and yet be in ſouth latitude.

The longitude, alſo, in the heavens, and on the earth, is different. For, as the latitude of a ſtar is reckoned from the ecliptic, ſo the longitude is reckoned on that circle, beginning at the firſt point of Aries, where the ecliptic cuts the equinoctial. Theſe particulars being premiſed, the problem may be ſolved in the following manner:

Elevate the north pole of the globe (if the ſtar be in north latitude, but the ſouth, if in the ſouthern hemiſphere) 66 deg. 29 min. the complement of the greateſt obliquity of the ecliptic, above the horizon. Turn the globe about, till the ſolſtitial colure lies under the brazen meridian, and fix the quadrant of altitude directly over the pole of the ecliptic; or, where the ſolſtitial and equinoctial colures interſect each other. Then bring the quadrant of altitude over the center of the ſtar, and the degree of the quadrant will ſhew its latitude; which will be either north, or ſouth, according as the north or ſouth poles of the globe are elevated: the point of the ecliptic, cut by the quadrant of altitude, will be the ſtar's place in the ecliptic; and the arch

of that circle, intercepted between the fiducial edge of the quadrant of altitude, and the firſt point of Aries, will ſhew the longitude of the ſame ſtar.

Thus, Aldebaran, or the ſouthern eye of the bull, will be found in 7 deg. 34 min. of Gemini, having 5 deg. 30 min. of ſouth latitude: the head of caſtor, or the northern Twin, in 17 deg. 2 min. of Cancer, having 10 deg. 4 min. north latitude: the bright foot of Orion, called Regel, in 13 deg. 37 min. of Gemini, with 31 deg. 10 min. ſouth latitude: and Sirius, or the great Dog Star, in 10 deg. 56 min. of Cancer, and in 39 deg. 32 min. ſouth latitude.

PROBLEM XVII.

To find the right Aſcenſion and Declination of any fixed Star.

The right aſcenſion of a ſtar, is the arch of the equinoctial, intercepted between the firſt point of Aries, and the meridian paſſing through the center of the ſtar; it is therefore the ſame with the longitude upon the earth, and the quantity of it would be the ſame, provided the firſt meridian paſſed through the point where the firſt point of Aries cuts the equinoctial. The declination of a ſtar, is the diſtance of the ſtar to the northward, or ſouthward, of the equinoctial, and conſequently is the ſame with the latitude on the earth; and as they both begin from the ſame line, both the quantity and denomination are the ſame. The right aſcenſion and declination of any ſtar on the celeſtial globe, muſt be found by the ſame method already uſed, for finding the longitude and latitude of places on the terreſtrial globe; that is, by bringing the given ſtar, whoſe right aſcenſion and declination is required, to the brazen meridian; for the degree of the equinoctial, cut by it, will be the right aſcenſion; and the degree on the brazen meridian, perpendicular to the center of the ſtar, will be its declination, and which will be either north or ſouth, as the ſtar is ſituated to the northward, or ſouthward, of the equinoctial.

Thus, the right aſcenſion and declination of the following ſtars, will be found as in the annexed table.

Aldebaran;

	Right Aſ. D.	M.	Declin. D.	M.	
Aldebaran; or, the Bull's Eye	65	0	16	0	N.
Capella; or, the Goat	75	15	45	44	N
Regel; or, Orion's Foot	75	30	8	33	S.
Sirius; or, the Great Dog	98	15	6	22	S..
Procyon; or. the Little Dog	110	30	5	22	N.
Caſtor; or, the Northern Twin	109	0	32	20	N.
Pollux; or, the Southern Twin	112	0	8	42	N
Alphard; or, Hydra's Heart	138	30	7	26	S..
Regulus; or, the Lion's Heart	148	45	13	12	N
Azimech; or, the Virgin's Spike	197	30	9	50	S..
Ariadne; or, the Northern Crown	231	15	27	35	N
Antares; or, the Scorpion's Heart	243	15	25	50	S..
Lyra; or, the Harp	277	0	38	30	N.

PROBLEM XVIII.

The Day of the Month, or the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic being given, to find the Time of any Star's paſſing the Meridian.

Bring the ſun's place in the ecliptic, to the meridian, and ſet the index of the hour circle to twelve at noon; then turn the globe about till the ſtar itſelf arrives under the brazen meridian, and the index will point out on the hour circle, the time when the ſtar will tranſit the meridian.

Thus, upon the 4th of September, the ſtar Aldebaran will paſs the meridian at 28 min. after 11. On the 14th of the ſame month, Regel, or the bright foot of Orion, will tranſit the meridian at 37 min. after 5 in the morning; and on the 5th of January, Sirius, or the great Dog Star, will appear in the meridian at 29 min. after 11.

PROBLEM XIX.

The Latitude of the Place, and the Day of the Month, or the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic being given, to find the Time of a Star's riſing and ſetting.

Rectify the globe to the lati ude, being the ſun's place in the ecliptic to the meridian, and ſet the index of the hour

circle to 12 at noon; then turn the globe about till the given ſtar juſt begins to aſcend on the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and the index will point out the time of the ſtar's riſing: and if the globe be ſtill turned about, till the ſame ſtar arrives at the weſtern ſide of the horizon, the index will point out the hour of the ſtar's ſetting.

Thus, at London, on the 4th of September, Aldebaran will riſe about 4 min. after 10 at night, and ſet at 53 min. after 12 at noon, the next day. On the 12th of January, Caſtor will riſe at 9 min. after 2 in the afternoon, and ſet at 14 min. after 10 the next morning. On the 13th of September, Regel will riſe at 21 min. after 12 at noon, and ſet 54 min. after 10 the next morning. And, on the 5th of January, Sirius will riſe at 55 min. after 6 in the evening, and ſet at 2 min. after 4 the next morning.

PROBLEM XX.

Given the Latitude of the Place, the Day of the Month, or the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic, and the Height, or Altitude, of any known Star, to find the Hour of the Night.

Rectify the globe to the latitude, bring the ſun's place to the meridian; ſet the index of the hour circle to 12 at noon, and fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith. Then turn the globe about till the ſtar cuts the quadrant in the given altitude; then will the index ſhew the hour of the night.

Thus, at London, the ſtar Aldebaran, on the 4th of September, will have 15 deg. 40 min. of altitude in the eaſtern ſemi-circle, at 49 min. after 11 at night. Caſtor, on the 12th of January, will have 60 deg. of altitude, in the eaſtern ſemi-circle, at 34 min. after 9 in the evening. Regel, or the bright foot of Orion, will have 24 deg. 45 min. of altitude in the weſtern ſemi-circle, at 35 min. after 7 in the morning, on the 14th of September. And, on the 5th of January, Sirius, or the great Dog Star, will have 15 deg. 30 min. of altitude in the eaſtern ſemi-circle, at 8 min. after 9 in the evening.

PROBLEM XXI.

The Latitude of the Place, the Day of the Month, or the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic, and the Hour of the Night, being given, to find what Stars are then riſing and ſetting, what Stars are culminating, or paſſing the Meridian, and the Altitude of any Star above the Horizon.

Rectify the globe to the latitude, bring the ſun's place to the meridian; ſet the index of the hour circle to 12 at noon, fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and turn the globe about till the index point out the given hour. Then,

1. All thoſe ſtars that appear juſt emerging above the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, are riſing.

2. All thoſe ſtars that appear in the weſtern limb of the horizon, are ſetting.

3. All thoſe ſtars that lie under the brazen meridian, are culminating. And,

4. If the quadrant of altitude be laid over the center of any ſtar, the degree cut by the ſtar in the quadrant will give the altitude of the ſtar at that time.

By this problem all the principal fixed ſtars may eaſily be known. For, as the globe thus rectified repreſents the face of the heavens as it then appears, the ſtudent, by remarking any bright ſtar, its place in the heavens, and the poſition of the ſtars that ſurround it, will eaſily find its correſpondent on the globe, and conſequently learn its name, and the conſtellation to which it belongs. I would therefore, my dear pupil, recommend this problem to your attention. Compare the face of the heavens frequently with your globe, thus rectified, and you will find that it will prove a pleaſing and eaſy taſk, to know all the remarkable ſtars viſible in this hemiſphere.

PROBLEM XXII.

To determine all thoſe Places upon the Earth, where an Eclipſe of the Moon, or of any of the Satellites of Jupiter, will be viſible.

1. *For an Eclipſe of the Moon.*

Find the declination of the ſun at the time when the phænomenon will happen, and elevate that pole of the globe

which is moſt remote from the ſun, till its height is equal to the ſun's declination.

Convert the time of the beginning of the eclipſe from noon, into degrees and minutes; and if the hour given be between noon and midnight, ſubtract it from the longitude of the given place to which it is computed; but if it happen between midnight and the ſucceeding noon, add it to the longitude of the given place, and bring the point in the equinoctial oppoſite to this on the brazen meridian. Then will a line, drawn by the eaſtern edge of the horizon, paſs through all thoſe places where the eclipſe of the moon begins at her ſetting; and if the duration of the eclipſe, reduced into degrees, be ſubtracted from the degree of the equator then under the meridian, and the globe turned about till that degree of the equator come to the meridian, a line, drawn by the weſtern edge of the horizon, will paſs through all thoſe places where the eclipſe will end at the riſing of the moon; and conſequently in all the tract of the earth's ſuperficies, included between theſe two lines; the eclipſe will be viſible.

2. *For an Eclipſe of one of the Satellites of Jupiter.*

Having found the place upon the earth where the ſun will be vertical at the time of the eclipſe, elevate the pole that is neareſt to the ſun, till its height be equal to the declination of the ſun at that time, and bring the place over which the ſun is vertical under the meridian; then if Jupiter be in conſequence of the ſun, a line drawn on the globe, along the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, will paſs through all thoſe places where the ſun is ſetting at the time of the eclipſe. But if Jupiter be in antecedence of the ſun, draw the line along the weſtern ſide of the horizon, and it will ſhew all thoſe places where the ſun is then riſing.

If Jupiter be in conſequence of the ſun, add the difference between the right aſcenſion of the ſun, and Jupiter, to the longitude of the place where the ſun is then vertical, and bring that degree of the equator under the meridian, and elevate the north pole (if Jupiter be on the north ſide of the equator, but if on the ſouth ſide, the ſouth pole) till it is equal to the declination of Jupiter; in this poſition of the globe, draw a line along the eaſtern ſide of the horizon,

horizon, and the ſpace comprehended between this line and the line that determin'd the place where the ſun was ſetting, will comprehend all thoſe places upon the earth where Jupiter will be viſible, from the ſetting of the ſun, to the ſetting of that planet.

But if Jupiter be in antecedence of the ſun, ſubtract the difference between the right aſcenſion of the ſun, and that of Jupiter, for the longitude of the ſun is vertical at that time of the eclipſe; and bring the degree of the equator, anſwering to the remainder under the meridian, and the globe being elevated as before, draw a line by the weſtern limb of the horizon, and the ſpace contained between this line, and the line of the ſun's riſing before drawn, will comprehend all thoſe places on the earth where the eclipſe is viſible.

S. In explaining the method of ſolving the latter part of the problem, you mentioned Jupiter's being in antecedence, and in conſequence of the ſun; I ſhould be glad to know what I am to underſtand by theſe terms?

M. By Jupiter's being in antecedence of the ſun is meant his being before the ſun; and by being in conſequence of the ſun, his being behind that luminary.

S. There is another difficulty which I cannot remove; it is this: you directed me to ſubtract the difference between the right aſcenſion of the ſun and that of Jupiter; but I ſhould be glad to know how I am to find the right aſcenſion of Jupiter?

M. I intended to explain that circumſtance previous to this ſolution; but as it is omitted, I ſhall add it here. The planets, not being fixed like the ſtars, cannot be inſerted on the celeſtial globe; but their latitudes and longitudes may be taken out of an Ephemeris for any given time, and conſequently their places may be found on the globe. When this is done, their right aſcenſions, declinations, the times of their riſing, ſetting, culminating, &c may be found at that time, in the ſame manner, and with the ſame facility, as theſe requiſites are found for the ſun.

Theſe problems being well underſtood, you will find no difficulty in ſolving others that may be propoſed, as they all depend upon the ſame principles.

DIALOGUE IX.

Of the Conſtruction, or Projection, of geographical Maps and Charts.

WHEN it is conſidered that the earth is of a globular figure, and that maps and charts are drawn on a flat ſurface, it will be eaſily conceived, that if ſome of the parts be drawn in their true proportions, others muſt be either contracted, or diſtorted; and conſequently if the whole ſuperficies of the earth be delineated, the map will have a different appearance from that drawn on the ſurface of the terreſtrial globe. In order to form a more adequate idea of this, let us ſuppoſe the terreſtrial globe covered with a net, compoſed of meridians and parallels, ſimilar to thoſe on the globe; and let us ſuppoſe this net to be taken off and extended on a plane. Then it is evident, that either the parallels, or meridians, muſt be contracted or diſtorted before they can be drawn of an equal tenſity. We are therefore obliged to have recourſe to what is called projection, in order to delineate the ſurface of the earth; by which means, though the ſeveral parts do not appear the ſame as on the globe, yet, when meaſured on proper ſcales, their diſtances, longitudes, latitudes, &c. will be equal; and conſequently the neceſſary problems may be ſolved by them to a ſufficient degree of accuracy. The appearance will indeed be different, according to the different methods of projections made uſe of; but the reſults will always be the ſame.

Maps are either univerſal or particular; the former are thoſe which exhibit the whole ſurface of the earth; and the latter, thoſe that exhibit ſome particular part of it. But whatever projection is made uſe of, or whether the map be general or particular, the three following requiſites are eſſentially neceſſary. 1. That all places have the ſame ſituation and diſtance from the great circles thereon deſcribed, as on the globe, in order to ſhew their latitudes, longitudes, zones, climates, &c. 2. That their magnitudes be proportional to their real magnitudes on the globe. 3. That all places

places have the ſame ſituation, bearing, and diſtances, as on the globe itſelf.

S. How many different methods of projection are there?

M. Two, with regard to general maps.

S. Are they diſtinguiſhed by particular names?

M. Yes; ſtereographic, and orthographic.

S. What am I to underſtand by a ſtereographic map?

M. By a ſtereographic map is meant, the ſurface of the earth delineated on a plane, according to the laws of ſtereographic projection. But in order to form an adequate idea of what is meant by projection, it is neceſſary to imagine that the ſurface of the globe upon which the circles are delineated, is of thin glaſs, and that one half of it is viewed at a time. Now it is eaſy to conceive that this hemiſphere may be viewed either on the convex, or on the concave ſide; and we may conceive it to be placed at different diſtances from the eye; and from this diverſity of view there will ariſe different projections or pictures of it in a map. If the eye be ſuppoſed to be placed in ſome point in the ſurface of the globe, in order to view the concavity of the oppoſite hemiſphere, it is called the ſtereographic projection.

You muſt have obſerved that the meridians drawn on the terreſtrial globe, are all at equal diſtances; but in the ſtereographic projection, the parts near the middle are conſiderably contracted, when compared with the parts near the circumference of the outward circle. The reaſon will be plain, when it is conſidered, that if a concave ſemi-circle be viewed with the eye in the plane of it continued, at the diſtance of a ſemi-diameter from its center, the projection of it on a tranſparent plane, paſſing through the center of the globe, will be a ſtrait line unequally divided, the parts growing leſs and leſs in proportion as they approach towards the center; conſequently if two ſemi-circles, cutting one another at right angles, drawn upon a concave hemiſphere, and marked with equal diviſions, be viewed through a tranſparent plane in the manner above deſcribed, the circles will be projected upon the plane into ſtrait lines, and the diviſions become unequal, the intervals leſs and leſs the nearer they approach the center.

Such is the ſtereographic projection; but it is either equatorial, meridional, or horizontal.

S. What is meant by an equatorial projection?

M. The equatorial projection ſuppoſes the eye to be placed in one of the poles of the earth, and from thence to view the oppoſite concave hemiſphere, with its circles projected on a tranſparent plane paſſing through the equator. In this projection the meridians will become ſtrait lines, and the parts where they are cut by the parallels of latitude unequal, becauſe they paſs through the eye, the center or pole of the projection. At the ſame time the parallels of latitude themſelves become compleat circles, but their diſtances unequal, the intervals between them growing leſs and leſs from the primitive or outward circle, which here repreſents the equator, to the pole or center of the projection.

S. What is the meridional projection?

M. The meridional projection ſuppoſes the eye placed in ſome point of the equator, viewing from thence the oppoſite concave hemiſphere, projected upon a tranſparent plane, paſſing through ſome meridian; which, another meridian drawn through the eye, cuts at right angles. In order to elucidate this projection, which is generally uſed in drawing maps of the world, I have given you a figure of one of the hemiſpheres projected on the plane of the ſolſtitial colure, ſee Plate IV. Fig. 2. In this figure the primitive, or outward circle, N, i. H, Æ, D, e, S, e, g Q, h, i, is the ſolſtitial colure, or that meridian which paſſes through the ſolſtitial points, Cancer, and Capricorn. And becauſe the equinoctial colure cuts the ſolſtitial colure at right angles, it is here repreſented by the ſtrait line, N, C, S, becauſe it paſſes through C, the pole of the projection, or point where the eye is placed. But the equinoctial colure cuts the equator in the points Aries and Libra; therefore one of the equinoctial points is the pole of the projection. The ecliptic itſelf, alſo cuts the equator in the points Aries and Libra, making with it an angle of 23 deg. 29 min. therefore the ecliptic, in this projection, is a ſtrait line. And becauſe the equator cuts the equinoctial colure at right angles in the points Aries and Libra, therefore the equator, likewiſe, is a right line drawn at right-angles to the ſolſtitial colure. In the figure, Æ C Q is the equator, or equinoctial; N C S, the equinoctial colure, and H C g, the ecliptic. The diviſions on all theſe right circles are unequal,

unequal, occaſioned by their being projected into ſtrait lines. All the reſt of the meridians, as they do not paſs through the pole of the projection, are arches of circles; but the intervals between them are leſs and leſs as they approach the center, for the reaſons already given. The parallels of latitude alſo are arches of circles, for the ſame reaſon: and though they are at equal diſtances on the primitive circle, yet they are not ſo where they croſs the equinoctial colure, but approximate towards each other, as they approach nearer to the center. All the circular arches which cut each other in the north and ſouth poles of the world, N and S, are meridians; and all thoſe that cut the meridians at right angles are parallels of latitude. H h, is the tropic of Cancer; D g, the tropic of Capricorn; i i, the arctic, and e e, the antarctic circle.

S. What is the horizontal projection?

M. The horizontal projection is that where the horizon becomes the primitive, or outward circle, and the eye is ſuppoſed to be placed in the center of that circle, viewing from thence the oppoſite concave circle, projected on a tranſparent plane paſſing through that horizon. Thus, if it ſhould be required to project a map upon the horizon of London, the eye muſt be ſuppoſed in the antipodes, and to view from thence the oppoſite concave hemiſphere with its circles projected on a tranſparent plane paſſing through that horizon. There is a great variety in this ſort of projection; for if the place on whoſe horizon the projection is to be made, be ſituated under one of the poles of the world, the primitive circle will become the equator, and, conſequently, the projection will be the ſame with the equatorial already explained. If the place be ſituated under the equator, the primitive circle will be one of the meridians, and therefore the projection the ſame with the meridional. But if the place be ſituated in an oblique ſphere, the projection will be different, according as the latitude of the place is different; for it will approach nearer to an equatorial, or meridional projection, according as the place is ſituated nearer to, or farther from the equator. In all horizontal projections, when the places are ſituated in an oblique ſphere, all the meridians, and parallels of latitude, except thoſe paſſing through the pole of projection, the equator, and ecliptic, become arches of circles. The chief advantage

of theſe maps conſiſts in this, that the place upon the horizon of which the map is projected being in the center, we may ſee the bearings of all the cities, towns, &c. laid down upon it.

S. What is meant by orthographic projections?

M. If the eye be ſuppoſed to view the hemiſphere at an infinite diſtance, the projection of its circles, whether it be viewed on the convex or concave ſide, is called orthographic. Fig. 1. Plate I. is a general map of one of the hemiſpheres projected orthographically on the plane of the meridian. Here all the meridians, except the primitive circle and that which paſſes through the pole of projection, are projected into ſemi-ellipſes, the intervals between them are continually increaſing as they approach nearer the center. The equator, and all the parallels of latitude are ſtrait-lines; but at unequal diſtances from each other.

It will be needleſs to ſay any thing further of this ſpecies of projection: becauſe the extreme parts of the maps conſtructed in this manner, render it ſo defective in the ſecond quality requiſite in geographical maps, that it is ſeldom uſed, except when the diſc of the earth in a ſolar eclipſe is to be exhibited, when the projection becomes truly uſeful.

S. What are particular maps?

M. A particular map is part of a general one, and may be laid down by the ſame principles as that of a whole hemiſphere, and taking ſo much of it only as the map is intended to contain. When we are to draw a map of a ſmaller part of the earth, and the part be near the equator, the meridians and parallels may be repreſented by equidiſtant right-lines, without any ſenſible error. If the place be ſituated at any conſiderable diſtance from the equator, the parallels may be equidiſtant ſtrait-lines, and the meridians ſtrait lines alſo, but converging a little towards the neareſt pole.

When we are to make a map of a very ſmall diſtrict, as a county or hundred, the meridians and parallels may be equidiſtant ſtrait lines, drawn through every minute, &c. of longitude, according as the largeneſs of the map will allow. But if the place be ſituated in any of the higher latitudes, whether north or ſouth, care muſt be taken not to make the length of the minutes of latitude and longitude equal, but in the ſame proportion as they are upon the globe. Indeed,

maps

maps of this kind have ſeldom any thing to do with longitude; the miles of latitude are equal to thoſe of eaſting or weſting; but then the latter ſhould not be called longitude, becauſe they are longer than thoſe known by that name.

The uſe of maps is very obvious, from their conſtruction. The degrees of the meridians and parallels ſhew the longitudes and latitudes of places; their bearings from each other appear from inſpection; and their diſtances may be meaſured by the diviſions on the meridian, equator, &c.

2. *Of Hydrographical Maps, or Charts.*

S. What is the difference between geographical and hydrographical maps or charts?

M. They are intended to anſwer different purpoſes, and therefore different methods are made uſe of in their conſtruction. The former are repreſentations of the face of a country, with its empires, kingdoms, cities, towns, ſeas, rivers, mountains, &c. The latter adapted to the purpoſes of navigation; and therefore the ſeas, coaſts, bays, harbours, rocks, ſhoals, &c. are laid down upon them, in the moſt particular and accurate manner poſſible.

S. How many different ſorts of charts are there?

M. There have been ſeveral projections invented for the uſe of navigators; but two only are now in uſe, called the plain chart, and Mercator's chart.

S. What is the plain chart?

M. The plain chart is a repreſentation of ſome part of the ſuperficies of this terraqueous globe, in which the meridians, as well as the parallels of latitude, are drawn parallel to, and at equal diſtances from each other. Upon this chart the ſea coaſts, rocks, ſhoals, ſoundings, rhumbs, or points of the compaſs, &c. are laid down.

S. Will this chart anſwer the intended purpoſe?

M. In ſhort voyages, eſpecially if performed near the equinoctial, where the degrees of longitude and latitude are nearly equal, a tolerable account of the ſhip's way may be kept by it. But when the voyage is long, and performed in the higher latitudes, very great and dangerous errors will unavoidably enſue; and therefore the projection is now deſervedly laid aſide, by all who underſtand the true principles of navigation.

S. Will

S. Will what you call Mercator's chart anſwer all the purpoſes of navigation?

M. It will. It has every requiſite the navigator can deſire. It is accurate, readily projected, and the neceſſary problems of ſailing may be ſolved by it with eaſe and expedition.

S. Upon what principles is it conſtructed?

M. It has been often demonſtrated by geometricians, that the parallels of latitude decreaſe in the proportion of the ſines of their diſtances from the poles; or, which is the ſame thing, that a degree of longitude under any parallel of latitude, is to a degree of longitude under the equator, as the radius is to the ſecant of the diſtance of that parallel from the equator.

But it is a neceſſary requiſite in all ſea-charts, that the meridians be parallel to each other as well as the parallels of latitude; for otherwiſe it will be very difficult to lay down the courſe or track of a ſhip with the neceſſary accuracy, becauſe there is no other projection where the rhumbs are ſtrait-lines. In order therefore to preſerve this eſſential property, it was at laſt diſcovered, that if the degrees of latitude are protracted in the ſame proportion as the degrees of longitude decreaſe, by which means the meridians and parallels are ſtrait lines, as in the plain chart, the rectilinearity of the rhumb lines will be retained, and the chart rendered ſufficiently accurate, and its uſe ſufficiently eaſy.

S. Why is it called Mercator's chart?

M. It has its name from Gerrard Mercator, who, about the year 1550. publiſhed a map of the world, wherein the degrees of latitude were increaſed from the equator towards the poles; and from this circumſtance all charts with increaſing degrees of latitude are called Mercator's charts. But though Mercator was the firſt who publiſhed a map with increaſing degrees of latitude, yet he is not the inventor of the chart that bears his name; for his degrees of latitude are not increaſed in a true proportion: we owe this diſcovery to our countryman, Mr. Edward Wright, who diſcovered the true principles about the year 1590; but being of a friendly and communicative diſpoſition, he imparted the ſecret to ſeveral of his friends, and among others, to Jodocus Hondius, a map engraver, who going ſoon after

to

to Holland, publiſhed the method as his own. In the year 1599, Wright imparted to the world his method of conſtructing a true ſea-chart, together with the demonſtrations on which it is founded, in a book, entitled Errors in Navigation detected and corrected; in the preface to which he complains of the diſingenuous conduct of Hondius and others.

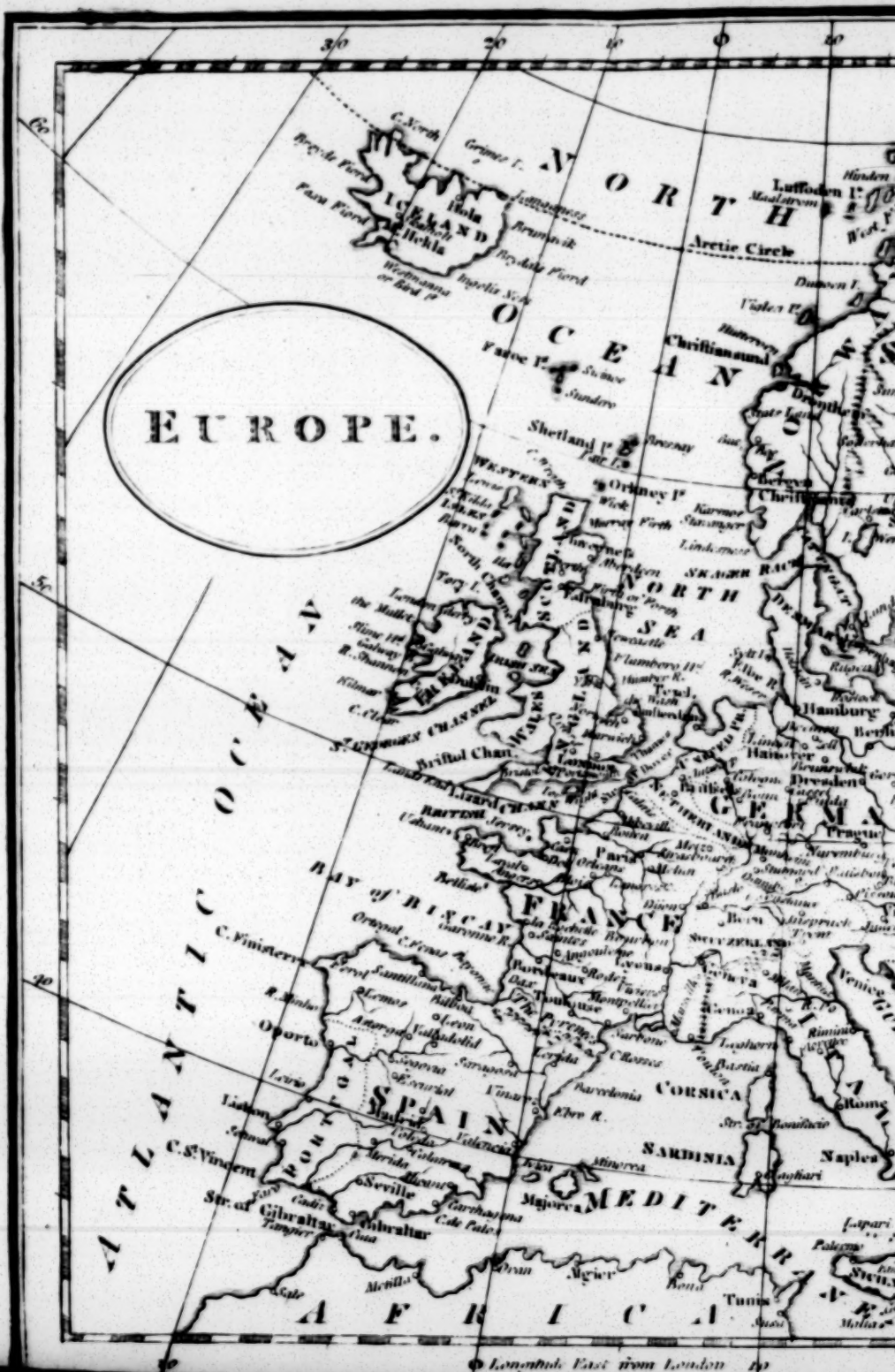
DIALOGUE X.

Of the political or artificial Diviſions of the Earth.

S. WHAT am I to underſtand by the political, or artificial diviſions of the earth?

M. By the political diviſions of the earth, is meant the different counties, empires, kingdoms, ſtates, and other denominations eſtabliſhed by mankind; ſome of which have owed their riſe to the ambition of princes, and others to their political ſagacity, in order that juſtice might be adminiſtered more impartially to their ſubjects, and their government eſtabliſhed on a ſurer foundation. But theſe deſigns, from whatever motive they might have their origin, have been often rendered abortive, or ſoon deſtroyed. The boundaries, as well as many of the ſubdiviſions of the ancient empires of the Medes, Parthians Babylonians, Greeks, and Romans, are at preſent hardly known. Other boundaries, other diviſions are now formed, and thoſe of the ancients diſregarded or forgotten: ſuch is the inſtability of all human things!

But the deſcription of the ſeveral political diviſions of the earth, are the ſubject of the following treatiſe, and not that of an introduction; I ſhall therefore only obſerve, that I intend to divide the following lecture which I propoſe to give you, into four books, in conformity to the general diviſion of the world into four quarters, Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America; and conclude this introduction with expreſſing my hopes, that you are thoroughly maſter of the precepts I have delivered, as you muſt not expect they will be repeated in the ſucceeding accounts and deſcriptions.


EUROPE.
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAY of BISCAY
MEDITERRANEAN
ENGLAND
FRANCE
SPAIN
GERMANY
CORSICA
SARDINIA
AFRICA
Arctic Circle
Hamburg
Naples
Gibraltar
Longitude East from London


LAPLAND
SWEDEN
FINLAND
WHITE SEA
RUSSIA
EUROPE
PRUSSIA
POLAND
GERMANY
HUNGARY
TURKEY
BLACK SEA
ANATOLIA
MORKA
Naples
Tripoli
Hamburg
Berlin
Vienna
Prague
Warsaw
Moscow
Kiow
Astrachan
Bucharest
Constantinople
Smyrna
Tyre
Sidon
Cyprus
Candia
Sea of Marmora
the Dardanelles
Bursa
Sophia
Salonica
Belgrade
Venice
Rome
Naples
Sicily
Malta
Sardinia
Corsica
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Tarento
Gulf of Finland
Baltic Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Levant
Caspian Sea
Don R.
Dnieper R.
Danube R.
Volga R.
Ural R.
Kuban R.
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Jordan R.
Nile R.
Black Sea
White Sea
Baltic Sea
Caspian Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Levant
Europe
Asia
Africa
Russia
Poland
Prussia
Turkey
Hungary
Germany
Sweden
Finland
Lapland
Anatolia
Morka
Tripoli
Naples

A

NEW and COMPLETE GEOGRAPHICAL GRAMMAR.

BOOK I.

The Geography *of* EUROPE.

DIALOGUE I.

Of the Boundaries *of* EUROPE, *its ancient* Inhabitants, *and the* Empires, Kingdoms, States, *&c. into which it is now divided.*

EUROPE is bounded on the north by the northern or frozen ocean; on the eaſt by Aſia; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean ſea; and on the weſt by the Atlantic or Weſtern Ocean. It lies between the parallels of 36 and 72 degrees of north latitude: and between 10 degrees of weſt, and 65 degrees of eaſt longitude from London. It is about 3000 miles long. 2500 broad; and, its area, according to Mr. Templeman's calculation, is 258000 miles.

S. Can you tell by what people Europe was firſt inhabited?

M. Your queſtion will not admit of a poſitive anſwer: authors are divided in their opinions; ſome contend for the poſterity of Japhet, and others for that of Shem. Thoſe who ſupport the former opinion ſay, that the deſcendants of Japhet paſſed from Aſia Minor over the Helleſpont into Greece, and thence, in proceſs of time, ſpread themſelves through every part of Europe. Others, who will have Europe to have been peopled by the poſterity of Shem, ſuppoſe that

that his deſcendants paſſed by land between the Palus Mæotis and the Caſpian ſea, and through Tartary into Scandinavia, where they fixed th ir reſidence, and afterwards, as their numbers increaſed, ſpread gradually over the other parts of Europe. I ſhall not pretend to determine which of theſe opinions is beſt founded. It is granted on all hands that one of theſe two ſons of Noah was the father of the Europeans; but might not both of them aſſiſt in peopling this country? Where is the neceſſity for ſuppoſing that the northern counties were peopled from Greece, ſuppoſing that ſome of Japhet's progeny paſſed the Helleſp nt into that territory? Might not the deſcendants of Shem paſs by the way above mentioned into Scandinavia about the ſame time, and people the northern parts of Europe? But however this be, whether the Europeans owe their origin to Japhet, to Shem, or to both, this is certain, that Europe was peopled very early; according to the beſt writers, in the ſecond century after the flood: and has continued ever ſince extremely populous, and her inhabitants illuſtrious for their courage, their wiſdom, their learning, and their virtue.

S. What are the grand, or principal diviſions of Europe?

M. The principal diviſions conſiſt of empires, kingdoms, republics, electorates, &c.

S. How many empires are there in Europe?

M. Three; Germany, Ruſſia, and Turkey.

S. How many kingdoms: and what are their names?

M. There are ſeven kingdoms in Europe, and their names are the following.

Great Britain and Ireland,
Spain,
Portugal,
Sweden,
Denmark,
Hungary,
Bohemia,
Pruſſia,
Sardinia,
Naples and Sicily, or the two Sicilies.

S. What are the names and number of the European republics?

M. Their

M. Their number is nine, and their names are,
France,
The United Netherlands; or Batavian Republic,
Switzerland,
The Griſons,
Genoa; or Ligurian Republic,
The new Ciſalpine Republic,
Lucca,
Geneva,
Reguſa.

S. What is meant by an electorate?

M. An electorate is a territory in the empire of Germany, governed by its own prince, but ſubordinate to the emperor. They owe their appellation to their princes having a voice in the election of an emperor. Some of theſe electorates are ſpiritual, and others temporal: the ſpiritual are

The electoral archbiſhoprics of { Mentz, Triers, Cologne.

The temporal electorates are,
Bavaria,
Saxony,
Brandenburg,
Palatine,
Brunſwic Lunenburg,
Bohemia.

Beſides theſe, there are near three hundred ſubaltern ſovereignties in Germany and Italy, whoſe ſovereigns, though they are feoffees to the emperor, or ſome other ſuperior prince, enjoy a royal authority in their own eſtates. Some of theſe are ſpiritual, and others temporal. The moſt conſiderable of the ſpiritual ſovereigns are,
The grand maſter of the Teutonic Order,
The grand maſter of Malta,
The grand prior of Malta; or
The grand prior of Germany,
The archbiſhop of Saltzburg.

Beſides theſe, there are twenty-one ſovereign biſhops in Germany; to which muſt be added, the abbots, and princes of Fulda, St. Gall, and ſome others.

Among

Among the temporal princes, the moſt conſiderable are,
The archduke of Auſtria,
The grand duke of Tuſcany,
The landgraves of Heſſe { Caſſel, Reinfels, Darmſtadt, Homberg

The dukes of Mecklenburg, Wirtemburg, Holſtein, Saxe-Weymer, Ryſenach, Gotha, &c. in Germany. And the duke of Courland, in Poland.

The princes of Anhalt, Aremberg, Hohenzollern, Naſſau and Eaſt Frieſland, Turſtemberg, Lichtenſtein, Waldeck, Tour and Taxis, &c. in Germany. The marquiſſes of Baden Dourlach, Brandenburg, Culembach, and Brandenburgh-Anſpach, in Germany.

The counts of Hanau, Solms, Troun, Seblick, Staremberg, &c.

Beſides theſe, there are the Cham of European Tartary, the Hoſpodars of Walachia, Moldavia, &c.

S. What are the principal iſlands of Europe?

M. The chief iſlands in what is called the German ocean, or north ſea, are,

England, Scotland, Ireland, } ſubject to the king of Great Britain.

In the Baltic-ſea, the chief Iſlands are,

Zealand, Funen, Alſen, Longland, Laland, Faiſter, Mona, Bornholm, } ſubject to Denmark.
Gothland, Aland, Rugen, } ſubject to Sweden.
Oſel, Dagho, } ſubject to Ruſſia.
Uſedom, Wollen, } ſubject to Pruſſia.

The principal iſlands in the Mediterranean ſea, are,

Majorca, Yvica, } ſubject to Spain.
Minorca, ſubject to England.
Corſica, ſubject to France.

Sardinia,

Sardinia, ſubject to the king of Sardinia.
Sicily, ſubject to Naples.
Malta, ſubject to the knights of Malta.
Cyprus, Candia and the iſlands of the Archipelago, ſubject to the Turks, except a few now in the hands of the Ruſſians.

In the Adriatic and Ionian ſea,

Lieſina,
Corfu,
Cephalonia,
Zant,
} ſubject to France.

Leucadia, to Turkey.

Beſides theſe, there are a great variety of others leſs remarkable; but which will be enumerated in deſcribing the empires, kingdoms, &c. to which they are ſubject.

DIALOGUE II.

Of the Kingdoms of Denmark and Norway.

THESE two kingdoms which were united in the year 1376, by the marriage of Aquin, king of Norway, with Margaret, daughter and heireſs of Waldemar, king of Denmark, were formerly part of Scandinavia, a large country, comprehending Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.

Denmark, including Norway, is one of the moſt northern kingdoms of Europe, and conſiſts of the following dominions, Denmark Proper; Norway; conſiderable territories in Germany, and ſeveral iſlands in the Baltic, and in the German ocean, or north ſea.

S. What are the boundaries of Denmark Proper?

M. It is bounded on the north by the Cattegate, or Schaggeriac ſea; on the ſouth by Germany and the Baltic ſea; on the weſt by the north ſea, or German ocean; and on the eaſt by the Sound.

S. Are the territories of Denmark Proper conſiderable?

M. According to Mr. Templeman's computation, they are 225 miles in length, 161 in breadth, and 11715 miles

miles in area. They lie between 54 and 58 deg. of north latitude, and 8 and 13 deg. of east longitude.

S. How is this part of the Daniſh territories divided?

M. It is divided into two parts, called, north and ſouth Jutland, and ſubdivided into the following dioceſes:

	Dioceſes.	*Chief Towns.*
North Jutland.	1. Aalbourg	Aalbourg.
	2. Wiburg	Wiburg.
	3. Aarhuſen	Aarhus.
	4. Ripen	Ripen.

	Dioceſes.	*Chief Towns.*
South Jutland.	Gottorf	Heſnick.
	Hederſtive	Hederſtive.
	Apenrade	Apenrade.
	Flenſburg	Flenſburg.
	Tendere	Tendere.
	Huſum	Huſum.
	Eyderſtede	Eyderſtede.

S. What are the iſlands in Denmark Proper?

M. This country abounds with iſlands; but the principal are the following:

Larger Iſlands.	*Principal Towns.*
Seeland, or Zeeland	Copenhagen, and Elſineur.
Funen	Odenſee, or Ottenſee.
Smaller Iſlands.	
Amack	Elſineur.
Arroe	Koping.
Langland	Rutcoping.
Lalland,	Naxchow
Falſter, or Falſtra	Nicoping.
Mona, or Mune	Stege, or Stecoe.
Saltholm	Samſoe.
Alſen	Sunderſburg.
Femeren	Samos.
Bornholm	Nex.

S. What do you mean by the Baltic, and what does the word ſignify?

M. The Baltic is properly a large bay or gulph of the ſea, waſhing the ſhores of Denmark, Germany, Pruſſia, Livonia, &c. on the ſouth, and thoſe of Sweden on the north. The name in the Daniſh language properly ſignifies the eaſt-ſea; and by that appellation it is often called.

S. Is

S. Is there any thing remarkable in this ſea?

M. The waters neither flow nor ebb, though a natural current ſets through the ſound, or mouth of it into the German ocean. Sometimes, indeed, this natural current is ſtopped by ſtrong winds at N. W. and then large quantities of water are driven into the harbours of the Baltic. Between the continent and the large iſlands of Funen and Zeeland, are the two famous mouths or ſtreights, called the Great and Little Belt, and the Ore Sound. The latter, which ſeparates Denmark from Sweden, is not above 131 fathoms broad, in the narroweſt part. And this being the uſual paſſage for ſhips in and out of the Baltic, and under the dominion of the king of Denmark, that prince exacts a certain tribute, or toll, from all ſhips trading to any part of the Eaſt-Sea.

Air, Soil, and Produce, of Denmark Proper.

S. It is natural to imagine from its ſituation ſo far to the northward, that the air muſt be exceſſively cold, and the ſoil almoſt barren in Denmark; I ſhould be glad to know if this be really the caſe?

M. The air is indeed very ſharp in Denmark Proper, but leſs ſo than in many places in Germany, ſituated much farther to the ſouthward; occaſioned, probably, by moſt of the cold winds paſſing over a large tract of ſea before they reach the coaſt, by which means their ſharpneſs is greatly abated. There are, however, only two ſeaſons in the year, ſummer and winter; the other two, ſpring and autumn, being hardly ever known here, eſpecially the former. An extremity of heat immediately ſucceeds an extremity of cold, and the contrary. The ſummer conſiſts only of three months, June, July, and Auguſt, during which time the heats are much greater than in England. It is, however, a kind of gloomy heat, there being generally a ſort of thick vapour between the earth and the ſun, which prevents his ſhining in his utmoſt ſplendor.

The ſoil is in many places barren, eſpecially on the high mountains, which abound in ſeveral parts of this country; but there are very large and fertile paſtures in the vallies, where black cattle are fed; and many of them ſent to the Netherlands, where they grow to a prodigious ſize. Here

is

is alſo a numerous race of ſtrong though little horſes, eſpecially in the dioceſe of Wiburgh. In ſome parts there are excellent arable lands, which, beſides producing corn ſufficient for the inhabitants, furniſh conſiderable quantities for exportation. Mecklenburg is, in a great meaſure, ſupplied with corn from the iſlands of Falſter and Mona; and the Dutch fetch many ſhip loads annually from the iſland of Lalland.

Mountains, Rivers, and Lakes.

S. Are there any remarkable mountains in Denmark Proper?

M. None that merit a particular deſcription. The higheſt are thoſe on the north-eaſt ſide of Gottorp; but there are many others diſſeminated through the whole country.

S. What rivers are there in Denmark Proper?

M. The rivers are very numerous in this country, eſpecially in South Jutland, or the Duchy of Sleſwick; but there is not one large enough to receive ſhips of any conſiderable burthen. The Eyder is the largeſt, and will admit of ſtout ſhips at its mouth; but this is rather a bay than a river. The ſmaller, however, though they are not navigable, greatly contribute to fertilize the countries through which they flow.

S. Are there many lakes in Denmark Proper?

M. There are a conſiderable number of lakes; but none of them remarkable enough to merit a particular deſcription here. They all, however, as well as the rivers, abound in fiſh of various kinds, as ſalmon, perch, tench, trout, eels, flounders, &c.

Manufactures and Commerce.

S. Are the Danes remarkable for their manufactures?

M. Far from it. They have indeed ſome tolerable good manufactures of hard-ware; and artiſts of every kind are now pretty well advanced in the knowledge of their reſpective profeſſions, and may probably ſoon equal thoſe of other nations; but at preſent the ſale of their productions is almoſt limited to their own country.

S. Is

S. Is their commerce or foreign trade conſiderable?

M. Many attempts have been made to render the trade of this kingdom very extenſive; but they have not yet ſucceeded. It may, indeed, at preſent, be conſidered as the center of the important and profitable traffic of the Baltic. Here are ſeveral companies eſtabliſhed for the encouragement of trade, particularly the Aſiatic company, the Weſt-Indian and Guinea company, a general trading company, and an Icelandiſh-Finmark company. But the favourite project of drawing the extenſive trade of Hamburgh to Altena, a town not above a mile diſtant, but in the dominions of Denmark, has not yet been ſucceſsful. The chief commodities exported from this country are black cattle, horſes, butter, tallow, hides, ſtock-fiſh, train-oil, tar, pitch iron, and timber of various kinds; oak is forbidden by a particular ordinance to be ſent out of the kingdom. The imports, beſides the Eaſt and Weſt Indian commodities from their ſettlements in thoſe parts, conſiſt chiefly of ſalt, wine, brandy, &c. In the year 1736; a bank was eſtabliſhed at Copenhagen, whoſe notes from ten to a hundred rix-dollars, paſs current in every part of the kingdom. An inſurance company for ſhipping was alſo eſtabliſhed about the ſame time; and it appears from the cuſtom-houſe books of 1770, that 3160 ſhips, and ſmall craft, entered the port of Copenhagen during that year.

The Inhabitants, their Dreſs, Genius, Learning, Language, and Religion.

The inhabitants of this northern kingdom are a robuſt, hardy people, at once laborious and induſtrious. They are in general tall, well proportioned, with good complexions, and fair hair; but the latter is generally red or yellow, though neither men nor women endeavour to conceal it, but take a great deal of pains to make it curl.

S. What is the dreſs of this people?

M. The perſons of any note imitate the French method of dreſs during the ſummer, but are not ſo prone to change. In the winter ſeaſon they wrap themſelves up in furs or wool. They are very neat and cleanly, and often change

their linen, which is made here, and is very cheap, but not remarkable for its fineneſs.

S. Are they celebrated for their genius and learning?

M. They are, at leaſt, not deficient in either. But the arts and ſciences found little encouragement here till lately; nor are they remarkable for imitating or improving the inventions of foreigners. But notwithſtanding this, Denmark can boaſt of ſeveral learned men, who have done honour to the republic of letters: as the famous mathematician and aſtronomer Tycho Brahe, the two Bartholines, ſo well known for their great knowledge in phyſic and anatomy. At preſent, learning is in great eſteem, and Denmark can now boaſt of ſeveral perſons well ſkilled in the ſciences. Divinity in particular flouriſhes here; and the Danes apply themſelves to the ſtudy of poetry and the Latin language. Beſides the univerſity at Copenhagen, conſiſting of four colleges, the riding-academy at Soroe, and the gymnaſium at Odenſe, there are ſeveral well-regulated ſchools in moſt of the large towns in the kingdom.

S. What is the language of Denmark?

M. A dialect of the ancient Teutonic, formerly uſed in all parts of Scandinavia: but the gentry and burghers generally uſe the German, or High Dutch, language. They alſo ſpeak French fluently, and generally uſe it to ſtrangers.

S. What religion is profeſſed in Denmark?

M. The eſtabliſhed religion is Lutheriſm; and their firſt reformer was John Bugenhagen, one of Luther's followers. No other ſect is tolerated here; though there are many Roman Catholics, Jews, Arminians, and Quakers, who all live unmoleſted. The principal eccleſiaſtical perſons are the biſhops, of whom there are ſix in Denmark Proper, two in Norway, and two in Iceland. But the clergy having, at the reformation, been ſtripped at once of their lands and power by the government, are, at preſent, principally ſubſiſted by the ſtate; their other emoluments ariſing from ſome gratuitous offerings made them by their people on the uſual feſtivals.

The Daniſh Territories in Germany.

S. Are the German territories of his Daniſh Majeſty conſiderable?

M. Ac-

M. According to Mr. Templeman's calculations, they are about 114 miles in length, and 64 in breadth, containing an area of 2260 ſquare miles. The diviſions and ſubdiviſions of this country are the following:

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Holſtein, divided between the king of Denmark, the dukes of Holſtein, and the imperial cities of Hamburgh and Lubec.	Holſtein Proper,	Kiel, ſubject to the duke of Holſtein Gottorp.
	Ditmarſh,	Meldorp, ſubject to Denmark.
	Stomar,	Hamburgh, imperial.
		Glucſtat, and Altena, ſubject to Denmark.
	Wagaria,	Lubec, imperial.
		Oldeſlow, and Ploen, ſubject to Denmark.
In Weſtphalia to the weſt of the Weſer.	Oldenburg C.	Oldenburg. ſubj. to Denmark.
	Dalmonhurſt,	Dalmonhurſt ſubj. to Denmark.

The Kingdom of Norway.

S. What are the boundaries, ſituation, and diviſions, of Norway?

M. It is bounded on the ſouth by the entrance into the Baltic, called, the Categate; on the weſt and north by the northern ocean; and on the eaſt by a long ridge of mountains, which ſeparates it from Sweden. It is about 750 miles in length, 170 in breadth, and contains an area of 71400 ſquare miles. It is ſituated between 58 and 72 degrees of north latitude, and 4 and 30 degrees of eaſt longitude. Norway is divided and ſubdivided in the following manner:

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
North Diviſion,	Wardhuys, or Norwegian Lapland	Wardhuys.
Middle diviſion,	Drontheim and Berghen,	Drontheim,
		Berghen,
		St vanger.

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Southern Diviſion, Anſlo, or Aggerhuys,		Aggerhuys, Frederickſtadt, Anſlo, or Chriſtiana.

Air, Soil, Mines, Mountains, Rivers, and Lakes, of Norway.

S. Is the air of Norway different from that of Denmark?

M. It is remarkably different: and, perhaps, varies more with regard to its properties of drought, humidity, &c. than in any other kingdom of Europe.

S. To what may the variation be imputed?

M. To the great extent of the kingdom from north to ſouth, and its lying ſo near the pole. You will be convinced of this, when I aſſure you, that the longeſt day at Berghen, which is ſituated in the ſouthern parts of this country, is 19 hours, and the ſhorteſt only ſix. At the beginning of the year, the length of the days increaſes with remarkable celerity; and, at the beginning of winter, decreaſe in the ſame proportion. In the northern parts of Norway, the ſun is ſeen for ſeveral weeks together circulating round the north pole, contracting his orbit, and then gradually enlarging it, till at length he leaves the horizon ſo that in the depth of winter he is for ſeveral weeks inviſible.

This prodigious difference in the length of the days muſt occaſion a ſimilar variation in the temperature of the air, with regard to heat and cold. In the winter the latter is exceſſive: the whole country ſeems converted into ice and ſnow. The peaſants bring the produce of their lands to market upon ſledges, and carry back in the ſame vehicles the commodities they want in their ſequeſtered places of abode

Nor are the heats of ſummer leſs remarkable; the various ſpecies of vegetables, particularly barley, grow up and ripen in ſix weeks or two months; nature always accelerating her operations when ſhe has but a ſhort time to finiſh her work. Hence we ſhall not be ſurpriſed to find, that notwithſtanding there are ſome pernicious night froſts, great quantities of corn are produced in Norway. The paſtures alſo,

alſo, eſpecially in the valleys, are equal to thoſe of moſt countries, ſo that the inhabitants have cattle, butter, cheeſe, &c. ſufficient for their own conſumption. They have alſo garden vegetables in great plenty; and they have lately made very conſiderable improvements in gardening, and propagating fruit-trees.

Nor is the weather leſs remarkable for its changes. Storms and tempeſts, ſudden guſts of rain, fruitful ſhowers, and amazing falls of ſnow, ſo frequently happen, that they are little regarded by the inhabitants, though they appear aſtoniſhing to ſtrangers.

S. Is there any great diverſity in the ſoil?

M. There is. In ſome places it is a black mould, in ſome loamy; in others it abounds with ſand, chalk, or gravel. Clay is alſo found in almoſt every part of the country, and turf, both brown and black, in many places.

S. What are the mines in Norway?

M. They are of ſeveral kinds. At Numedale, near Drammen, there is one with veins of pure maſſy ſilver; there is another, with very rich ore at Jarlsberg; and a third at Kongſberg. The laſt is the moſt ancient, and is ſaid to be 150 fathoms deep; but the ore is not ſo rich as either of the two former. There are ſeveral copper mines; three of them remarkably rich. Iron mines are found almoſt every where in the mountains. Here are alſo mines of quickſilver, ſulphur, ſalt, vitriol, and alum. There are alſo mines in the dioceſe of Aggerhuys, and others of leſs note, in ſeveral parts of the country.

S. Are the mountains of Norway remarkable?

M. Yes: they are remarkable for their extent, their height, and the torrents of water that guſh from their declivities. They cover the greater part of the country, and ſtrike a ſtranger with terror. An enormous chain extends from the ſouthern to the northern extremities of the kingdom. The ſides of theſe tremendous mountains are ſo full of rocks, precipices, and torrents, that they appear impaſſable; but notwithſtanding this, their ſummits are every where ſo ſmooth and level, that, were they not conſtantly covered with ſnow, carriages might travel much eaſier than in the lower parts; eſpecially on the mountains over which the road to Kongſberg paſſes. By the ſides of this and other roads, there are mountain-ſtoves, or reſting places for

travellers, erected and maintained at the public expence. The other mountains lie generally from eaſt to weſt and have many fruitful vallies between them. The craggy rocks on the ſides of ſome of theſe mountains exhibit appearances extremely romantic; and ſome of them have amazing and frightful caverns, which, when their mouths are covered with ſnow, are very dangerous to travellers.

S. Are there any large rivers and lakes in Norway?

M. There are ſeveral large rivers in Norway, but none that are navigable farther than their mouths for ſhips of any conſiderable burthen, on account of the cataracts, or water-falls, occaſioned by the intervening rocks and cliffs. They are, however, of the greateſt uſe to the inhabitants for conveying their timber from the mountains to the ſea-ports, as well as driving their mills. The lakes are not remarkably large, but many of them deep, and contain prodigious quantities of water.

Animals of Norway.

S. Are there any remarkable animals in Norway?

M. There are many not found with us, but which are common in other countries. The principal of theſe are the rein-deer, the bear, the wolf, the ermin, the beaver, the jerven, the haaren, and ſeveral others.

The rein-deer is ſhaped like a hart, his horns are covered with fur, and the branches turned both forward and backward. Large herds of this deer run wild about the country, where they are killed and ſold like other game. Their fleſh is very delicate, and their ſkins highly eſteemed by the leather-dreſſers. Theſe creatures abound moſt in Finmark, and in them the principal riches of the inhabitants conſiſt. They breed them up tame, and live principally on their fleſh and milk. They make ſewing thread of their ſinews, and tents, cloathing, and bed covering with their ſkins. Theſe deer are alſo of the greateſt uſe in drawing ſledges for the convenience of travelling; and it is aſtoniſhing with what rapidity they will convey paſſengers over the ſnowy mountains.

The bear is too well known to need any deſcription: and with regard to the wolf, I ſhall only obſerve, that it reſembles

reſembles a dog in ſhape; his general colour is grey; but he turns white during the piercing cold of winter.

The ermin is a ſmall creature, and hides itſelf in the clifts of rocks and heaps of ſtones. It is remarkable for its beautiful white fur; its tail is ornamented with a delicate black ſpot. The cleanlineſs of this little creature is aſtoniſhing: it will ſooner run through the fire than through the leaſt dirt.

The beaver is about the ſize of a ſmall dog; it has a long body, ſhort legs, ſmall round ears and eyes, a ſhort flat head, and a large thick ſcaly tail. It is an amphibious creature, and builds itſelf a houſe with great dexterity, at the fall of a river. The ſkin, fur, and caſtor found in a bag near the tail of the animal, furniſh great part of the trade carried on at Elvermus fair.

The jermin reſembles the beaver, but is much ſmaller. Its fur is very ſoft and delicate, of a black colour, variegated with brown and yelloviſh ſtreaks.

The haaren is about the ſize of a large cat; but the head and ſnout are longer. It is of a dark brown colour on the back, and of a bright yellow colour under the belly. It is hunted on account of its ſkin, which is of conſiderable value.

Iceland.

This iſland is the largeſt in Europe, that of Great Britain only excepted, being about 220 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and 300 in breadth from north to ſouth. It is ſituated in the northern ocean, between 63 deg. 30 min. and 67 deg. 15 min. of north latitude, and between 14 deg. 40 min. and 29 deg. of weſt longitude; according to an accurate map drawn by a company of engineers ſent to Iceland for that purpoſe by his Daniſh majeſty, and publiſhed by Mr. Horrebow, in his natural hiſtory of Iceland.

S. I have heard many ſtrange and dreadful relations of Iceland; its burning mountains, &c. and ſhould be glad of ſome authentic account of that famous iſland.

M. I will endeavour to ſatisfy your curioſity as far as the intended length of theſe dialogues will admit; and hope it will prove at once both pleaſing and inſtructive.

Diviſions of Iceland.

S. How is Iceland divided?

M It is divided into four diſtricts, diſtinguiſhed by the epithets eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth. The face of the country is very uneven having enormous chains of mountains, ſome extending the whole length of the iſland from eaſt to weſt, and others croſſing them at right angles, from north to ſouth. Between theſe mountains are fruitful vallies, ſome of them are ſeveral miles in length and breadth. Theſe mountains, together with the lakes, of which there are many here, divide the iſland into twelve unequal parts, called ſyſſells, or ſhires.

Mountains of Iceland.

S. Are not theſe mountains very remarkable?

M. Some of them are. The mountains in the middle of the iſland are exceedingly rugged, barren, and deſolate; a few only excepted, whoſe ſides are covered with a ſhort graſs. But thoſe of a lower kind, and which ſeparate moſt of the ſhires, are, in general, pretty fertile, producing plenty of excellent graſs.

The barren mountains are of two kinds; the one compoſed entirely of ſand and ſtones; the others are enormous rocks, continually covered with ice and ſnow, and diſtinguiſhed by the name of Jokells, or burning mountains. The moſt remarkable of theſe are Hecla, Kotlegau, and Oraiſe. Theſe Jokells are not the higheſt mountains in the iſland, though they are perpetually covered with ſnow. They are ſurrounded by others much higher than themſelves, though the ſnow melts away in ſummer; ſo that its continuance on theſe rocky eminences muſt be owing to ſome peculiar quality in the nature of the ſoil.

S. I ſhould be glad of ſome farther account of theſe burning mountains.

M. I will endeavour to ſatisfy your requeſt in the moſt conciſe manner poſſible, beginning with mount Hecla, which has always been conſidered one of the moſt noted volcanos in the world. The top of it is perpetually covered with ice and ſnow. The aſcent is very difficult; the traveller ſinking almoſt to his knees in ſand and aſhes every ſtep

he

he takes. In the ſides of the mountain are many frightful rents and chaſms, and ſeveral deep cavities full of boiling hot water. It is ſituated in the ſouthern part of this iſland, about four miles from the ſea coaſt and is divided into three points at the top, the higheſt of which is that in the middle, which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the ſea. This mountain has frequently ſent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occaſioned terrible devaſtations, the aſhes being thrown all round the iſland to the diſtance of 180 Engliſh miles. There was likewiſe an eruption in 1766, which began on the 5th of April and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded from it in December 1771 and 1772. But the greateſt of its eruptions, and, in fact, the moſt tremendous of any recorded in the hiſtory of volcanos, was the laſt in 1783; which, according to the accounts received of it, dried up twelve rivers, and extended 94 miles in length and 50 in breadth, ſo that the entire ſurface of the country was in a ſtate of fluidity, and formed a lake of fire, reſembling a maſs of melted metal.

I ſhall mention only one more eruption of this kind, namely, that of the Jokell Kotlegau in the year 1721. This mountain, which ſtands in the ſouthern diſtrict of the iſland, 34 miles from the ſea, after having given ſeveral warnings by ſhocks of earthquakes, at firſt diſcharged a volume of fire which melted the ice and ſnow. A torrent of water frightfully rapid ſucceeded, ſweeping away with it an incredible quantity of ſand and earth. The whole tract of land over which it paſſed was deſtroyed, and nothing left but the bare rock. The current continued its violent rapidity to the ſea the bed of which it not only filled to above three miles diſtance from the ſhore, but left a mountain in the place. Two men, who were at that time paſſing along the road near the burning mountain, had the good fortune to eſcape to a high rock in the neighbourhood, whence they beheld this ſpectacle with aſtoniſhment and horror. The torrent laid the whole country under water, ſo that they were obliged to continue on the rock near two days, when the waters being greatly abated, they purſued their journey in ſafety. This fiery eruption, together with the clouds of aſhes, ſmoke, and ſand which followed it,

eclipſed the ſun for a whole day. The aſhes were carried to an incredible diſtance, and covered the whole face of the country.

Air and Soil.

S. Is the air colder here than in Norway?

M. Not in the ſouthern parts, which are the only ones inhabited; it is there much warmer than in the parts of Norway under the ſame parallel of latitude. Their winters begin ſome time before the autumnal equinox, and generally continue till the middle of April, when the ſummer begins; for they have hardly any thing that can be called either ſpring or autumn.

S. Does the iſland produce corn of any kind?

M. The Icelanders are entire ſtrangers to agriculture; they neither plow nor ſow. They have indeed a ſpecies of ſmall wheat that grows ſpontaneouſly in deep ſandy ſoils in ſome of the diſtricts of the iſland, and which is reckoned by the inhabitants equal, if not ſuperior, to that imported from Copenhagen. But they have no mills to grind it; their method of reducing it to powder is by parching it over the fire, and then pounding it in mortars.

S. Can any reaſon be given for this total neglect of agriculture?

M. It has been imagined to have been one of the conſequences of a dreadful plague which raged there in the fourteenth century, and ſwept away almoſt every inhabitant of the iſland: the few that eſcaped to tell the melancholy tale, ſaved themſelves by taking refuge in the mountains where the deſtructive contagion did not reach. The ſame dreadful diſeaſe extended its baneful influence to Denmark, Norway, and Sweden; where it ſwept away ſuch multitudes of people, that none could be ſpared to recruit this ruined colony. So that, before it could be re-peopled, agriculture was neglected and forgotten. This ſeems the more probable, as there are ſtill evident marks, in ſeveral places, of the lands having been once tilled; and in the Icelandiſh code of laws there are three or four chapters relating to the plowing of lands, and ſowing them with corn.

Trade

Trade and Commerce.

S. Is the trade of Iceland conſiderable?

M. No; it is confined to a few articles. The commodities they export are dried fiſh, ſalted lamb's fleſh, ſome beef, butter, train-oil, conſiderable quantities of tallow, wool, ſheep ſkins, foxes ſkins of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports are timber, fiſhing-lines, tobacco, bread, brandy, wine, ſalt, coarſe linen, and a few other articles. All theſe commodities are to be imported by Danes only, a company being erected at Copenhagen for this purpoſe, who have an excluſive privilege, ſo that no other perſon is allowed to trade there.

S. You mentioned eider down, in your catalogue of exports; I ſhould be glad to know what it is?

M. This down is procured from a peculiar ſpecies of water-fowl, called the eider duck, or down-bird. They are at once very numerous and very advantageous to the Icelanders. When theſe birds build their neſts, the duck pluckſ off the down from her breaſt for the eggs to lie on, and to keep them warm. They lay four eggs, of a green colour, as large as thoſe of the gooſe, and as well taſted as the hen's. When they have laid this number, the Icelanders take them away, and alſo ſtrip the neſt of its down. This, however, does not diſcourage the birds; the duck plucks another parcel of down from her breaſt, and lays again the ſame number of eggs; but theſe, like the former, together with the down, are taken away. Still patient under theſe misfortunes, the birds go to work a third time; but the duck, having waſted her whole ſtock of down, the drake ſtrips his own breaſt, to furniſh the neceſſary quantity. If the eggs are taken the third time, the duck lays no more that year; nor will ſhe ever again return to the ſame place; but if they ſuffer thoſe birds to ſit on theſe eggs and rear their young, they will return again the ſucceeding ſpring, with their whole progeny, and make their neſts in the ſame place. As ſoon as the young ones have left their neſt, the Icelanders gather the down a third time; and thus gain two parcels of eggs and three of down from the ſame pair of birds; and are alſo ſure that they ſhall have them again in the following ſpring. The Icelander are therefore careful to ſett hem ſit on the

third parcel of eggs, as they will have two or three neſts for one the ſucceeding year. This down is a very valuable commodity, and they accordingly ſell it at a good price to the Denmark traders.

Inhabitants, Religion, &c.

S. You mentioned that almoſt all the inhabitants were ſwept away by a plague in the fourteenth century; is the iſland yet repeopled?

M. From the beſt accounts it appears that the number of ſouls at preſent on the iſland is about 60,000, which is not one inhabitant to two ſquare miles of country; the area of Iceland being at leaſt 216,000 ſquare miles, conſequently the iſland is very thin of people: indeed, not one tenth part of the country is either inhabited or cultivated. The far greater part of the Icelanders live near the ſea-coaſt, on account of the fiſheries, and the trade carried on there with the Daniſh merchants.

S. Are there any towns in Iceland?

M. There are twenty-two trading towns, as they are called by the inhabitants: but none of them conſiſt of more than three or four houſes for the Daniſh merchants, a ſhop, warehouſe, and kitchen; ſo that they are rather factories than towns. With regard to the Icelanders, they live in ſmall cottages, ſcattered at a great diſtance from one another; ſo that, properly ſpeaking, there is not even one village on the whole iſland.

S. What are the principal employments of the Icelanders?

M. Fiſhing and graziery. It may be ſaid that every man is a ſmith, a carpenter, &c. for they all make their own utenſils, and even build their houſes themſelves; there being no profeſſed artificers of any kind on the iſland.

S. What is the general character of theſe people?

M. They were once a robuſt, hardy, brave, and warlike people, and formed a large part of the Norwegian army, when they ravaged the ſea-coaſts of Gaul, Britain, &c. and laid the fertile plains of Italy waſte; but their military glory has been long at an end; they are confined to their own iſland, and ſpend the ſummer in fiſhing, &c. and the winter in idleneſs. Few of the natives, except the clergy, can

can boaſt of any learning, and ſtill fewer of any polite accompliſhments. They are however fair and honeſt in their dealings, and very hoſpitable to ſtrangers.

S. What religion is profeſſed in Iceland?

M. The reformed religion, according to Luther. The iſland is divided into two biſhoprics, Skalhold and Hoolum; and every pariſh has its miniſter; but ſome of the livings are very poor indeed. The revenues of the biſhoprics are not more than 210l. a year each; conſequently, thoſe ariſing from the ſmall pariſhes, in many of which there is not 20 houſes, muſt be exceedingly ſmall. The churches, though remarkably mean, are, however, very well frequented and, in moſt of them, divine ſervice is performed in a very decent manner.

Curioſities, &c.

S. Are there any remarkable curioſities in Iceland?

M. Yes ſeveral; but they all owe their exiſtence to nature, for there is not one in the iſland that has been formed by human art. Before the reformation, indeed, while the Roman Catholic religion flouriſhed here, there were ſome ſtructures that deſerved notice; but they are now demoliſhed, and very few veſtiges of the ruins remain.

S. What are the natural curioſities of Iceland?

M. They principally conſiſt in hot ſprings, attended with many peculiarities not to be met with elſewhere; but ſome of them ſeem to owe a ſmall part of theſe peculiarities to art. There are ſeveral baſons, ſome of them remarkably capacious near theſe hot ſprings; and at one of them are two aqueducts, one of which conveys hot, and the other cold water to the baſon. The inhabitants conſider this circumſtance as natural, and the aqueducts as made by the current of the water; but the baſon ſeems to be formed with too much regularity to be the effect of a fall of water only, and was, in all probability, originally made, or, at leaſt, improved by art.

Theſe hot ſprings are found in various parts of the iſland; but the moſt remarkable, and the only one I ſhall mention here, is that found near a farm, called Reykum, in the northern diſtrict of the iſland. This flux of hot water conſiſts of three wells about ſixty yards diſtant from

from each other. When the well at one of the extremities has diſcharged its waters, the middle one begins to boil over; and, on its ſubſiding, that at the other extremity overflows. In this manner they continue to boil over in continued ſucceſſion; each boiling up about three times in a quarter of an hour. In two of them the water riſes between the clefts of the rock, and boils up about two feet above the ſurface. The third has a large circular aperture, through which the water flows into a baſon formed in the rock. This well projects its water with ſuch velocity, that it riſes more than twelve feet above the ſurface of the rock. As ſoon as this projection is over, it ſinks to a great depth below the top of the well: but it ſoon returns again with the ſame violence as before. Whatever ſubſtance is thrown into this well while the water is ſubſiding, ſinks to the bottom, though it were the lighteſt wood; but at the return of the water it is thrown up with great violence, and may be found at the edge of the baſon. Experiments of this kind have been frequently made with different bodies, and fragments of rocks as large as the ſtrongeſt man can lift have been plunged into the well. Theſe heavy bodies make a violent noiſe on their reaching the bottom; but, on the water's return, are ejected out with great force beyond the edge of the well.

S. Can any reaſon be given for this uncommon phænomenon?

M. Yes; the ſame method of inveſtigation uſed to account for the phænomena of reciprocal ſprings in general, will be ſufficient to account for this: but diſquiſitions of that kind are foreign to theſe dialogues. If ever your curioſity ſhould prompt you to know the reaſons for theſe appearances, you will find ſufficient inſtructions in the Lectures of Deſaguliers, Martin, or Kowning.

The Faro Iſlands.

Theſe iſlands are ſituated in the northern ocean, in 64 deg. of north latitude, and 7 deg. of weſt longitude.

S. Why are they called the Faro Iſlands?

M. Becauſe they lie in a cluſter, and ſo cloſe together, that the inhabitants ferry over from one iſland to another.

S. How many of theſe iſlands are there?

M. Twenty-

M. Twenty-four; and the whole cluſter extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth.

S. Are theſe iſlands populous?

M. No; the whole number of inhabitants has been computed at about three or four thouſand.

S. Do they carry on any trade?

M. Very little; they live chiefly by fiſhing, and add ſcarcely any thing to the revenues of Denmark.

Lapland.

S. Does Lapland belong to Denmark?

M. Part of it does; and therefore I have thought proper to add a ſhort account of it here. It lies between the arctic circle and the parallel of 71 deg. 30 min. and between the longitudes of 15 and 45 deg. E. But the greater part of this large country is unknown, and divided between Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia. The parts belonging to Denmark, extend along the eaſtern and northern coaſt of Norway; Muſcovite Lapland, forms the eaſtern boundary; and the Swediſh territories are a very conſiderable tract of country between Norwegian and Ruſſian Lapland.

Mountains, Rivers, and Lakes.

S. Is Lapland remarkable for its mountains, rivers, and lakes?

M. It is; and you cannot perhaps form a more adequate idea of Lapland than by imagining a prodigious maſs of mountains thrown together; but, in ſome places, ſeparated by rivers, lakes, and torrents of water. In theſe lakes are many iſlands, ſome of which are remarkably pleaſant and delightful in the ſummer: the ground being then enamelled with flowers. But theſe are only particular ſpots; the whole flat country in general being covered with gloomy foreſts, and fœtid unhealthy moraſſes.

Climate and Soil.

S From the ſituation of the country ſo near the pole, I ſhould imagine the cold muſt be remarkably ſevere.

M. It

M. It is ſo extreme that none but thoſe who are bred up here can ſupport it. The ſwifteſt rivers are often frozen ſo hard that the ice is ten or twelve feet thick. The tops of the mountains are perpetually covered with ſnow, which in the winter is hardly ever leſs than ſix or ſeven feet deep in the level country. The frightful caverns and enormous pits are filled up, and the whole ſide of the mountain forms a ſmooth, though often a very ſteep aſcent, from the bottom to the ſummit. Sometimes a thaw takes place; and when this happens, the next froſt preſents the Laplander with a ſmooth, level ſurface of ice, over which he drives his ſledge with inconceivable ſwiftneſs.

S. Is there any ſummer in Lapland?

M. Yes; and, during that ſeaſon, it would be inſupportably hot, were it not for the vapours that riſe from the ocean, and the ſnow which always covers the ſummits and fills the caverns of the mountains.

S. What can be the cauſe of ſuch great heat in theſe frozen regions of the north?

M. It is occaſioned by the ſun's continuing ſo long above the horizon; for he circulates round this country for near three months without ſetting, by which means his beams become ſo conſolidated, that the heat of the ſummer is as great as the cold of winter is ſevere. During this ſeaſon, the earth brings her fruits to perfection, the flowers enamel the meadows, and the cataracts which tumble down the declivities of the mountains, preſent the ſpectator with a ſcene not to be paralleled in any part of the temperate zones.

Language, Cuſtoms, and Manners of the Laplanders.

S. What is the language of the Laplanders?

M. It is a barbarous jargon; but ſeems to be derived from the old Teutonic, or that ſpoken by the original inhabitants of Scandinavia.

S. Have they any learning among them?

M. The arts and ſciences have never yet viſited this country. The Laplanders are acquainted with ſuch arts only as ſupply them with the means of procuring a wretched ſubſiſtence. Miſſionaries have indeed been ſent among them to plant Chriſtianity in their country; but their labours

bours hitherto have not produced the deſired effect. Indeed, the Laplanders are ſo ſtupid a race, that reaſoning has no force upon them, and the abſurd and ridiculous cuſtom of their pagan anceſtors are too firmly rooted to be eradicated by the utmoſt efforts of the meſſengers of religion.

Natural Hiſtory.

S. Is there any thing peculiar in the natural hiſtory of this country?

M. There is; the animals, birds, &c. are nearly the ſame with thoſe deſcribed in the account of Norway. But the ſea affords, it is ſaid, beſides the fiſh uſual in theſe cold climates, two monſters which muſt not be paſſed over in ſilence. One of them is the ſea ſnake or ſerpent of the ocean; the other is a kind of polypus, called the kraken.

S. You called them both monſters; did you uſe that term to indicate their enormous ſize?

M. I did: I muſt premiſe, however, that the exiſtence of either of them is now very much doubted. The ſea ſnake is of ſuch a ſize that the accounts given of it may well be eſteemed fabulous. One of theſe, we are told, was ſhot by the maſter of a veſſel in the year 1756; its head reſembled that of a horſe; both the mouth and eyes were large and black; and a white mane flowed down its neck. When it was firſt diſcovered it floated on the ſurface of the water, holding its head at leaſt two feet above the waves; and in this part the fatal bullet, which put a period to the monſter's life, took place. Between the head and the neck were ſeven or eight folds, which were very thick; and its whole length one hundred yards. Its body was as large as a hogſhead, and its ſkin variegated like tortoiſe ſhell.

S. What is there remarkable in the kraken?

M. The kraken may be called the wonder of the ocean. It is a ſpecies of the polypus, but of ſo enormous a ſize, that when it appears above the water, it reſembles a number of ſmall floating iſlands and sand-banks, near a mile and a half in circumference, covered with ſea-weeds, and ſmall fiſhes ſporting in the cavities. As it emerges higher a multitude of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and ſize, of the maſt of a trading veſſel, appear. With

theſe he gathers the ſmall fiſh, which form his food, and then ſinks again below the ſurface of the water. But when he ſinks he cauſes a very remarkable ſwell of the ſea, and a kind of whirl-pool is formed in his place. If you ſhould be deſirous of knowing more of theſe and many other monſters of the deep, found in the Norwegian and Lapland ſeas, you may peruſe biſhop Pontoppidan's Natural Hiſtory of Norway, a writer once conſidered as deſerving credit, but now ſuſpected of dealing ſomewhat too much in the marvellous, as ſince he wrote, no farther accounts have been received of his monſters.

Curioſities.

S. Are there any curioſities in this frozen country?

M. There are ſeveral natural curioſities; two only of which I ſhall mention here. The firſt is the number of remarkable caverns formed by nature in the ſides of theſe ſnow-topped mountains, and which are hardly to be paralleled in any other country. The ſecond is that remarkable whirl-pool, or vortex, called the maleſtrom, moſkoeſtrom, or navel of the ſea. This dreadful vortex is about four miles to the weſtward of the coaſt of Lapland, and nearly 68 deg. 10 min. of north latitude. The iſland Moſkoe, from which this rappid current has its name, lies about mid-way between a lofty cliff of Lapland and the iſland Ver; and between the latter and the coaſt. An amazing tide runs on both ſides of the iſland Moſkoe; but the water in the channel which ſeparates the two iſlands is not above 10 feet deep; while, between Moſkoe and the continent, it is near 400 fathoms. As ſoon as the flood begins, the current ſets to the northward through the ſtrait that ſeparates Moſkoe from the continent with amazing rapidity; but when the current changes with the ebb, the velocity is increaſed in an aſtoniſhing manner, and the noiſe of it is far ſuperior to that of the loudeſt cataracts. It is heard at the diſtance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of amazing depth and extent, and of ſuch violence that if a ſhip of the largeſt burden comes near it, ſhe is inevitably drawn into the whirlpool, and carried immediately to the bottom, and there daſhed in pieces againſt the rocks. The ſcattered fragments however riſe again at the return of the flood, when the water becomes ſtill for about a quarter

ter of an hour. When the whirlpool is agitated by a ſtorm, its attractive force has reached veſſels at more than ſix Engliſh miles diſtance, where the mariners have thought themſelves ſufficiently ſecure. It is, perhaps, beyond the power of human imagination to paint a ſituation of more horror than this of being driven forward by the ſudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the margin of a gulph, whoſe noiſe and violence ſtill increaſing as it is approached, give an earneſt of a ſpeedy and inevitable deſtruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of terror and deſpair, cry aloud for that help which they know to be impoſſible; and ſee before them that dreadful abyſs into which they muſt, in a few moments, be plunged, and daſhed to pieces againſt the ſunken rocks.

Nor is this terror confined entirely to the human race; even animals, when they have approached too near this dreadful vortex, have, in their manner, expreſſed the utmoſt terror, when they find the ſtream irreſiſtible. The whales themſelves are frequently carried away by the torrent; and when they firſt feel the force of the water they ſtruggle againſt it with all their might, laſhing the ſea into a foam, and howling in a moſt frightful manner.

S. Have any of the learned been able to diſcover the cauſe of this aſtoniſhing whirlpool?

M. The cauſe is now known; but before this was diſcovered ſeveral hypotheſes were formed to explain the phænomenon, moſt of which are too romantic to be mentioned; but the opinion of Kircher was for ſome time embraced. He imagined that the maleſtrom was a vortex of the ſea, occaſioned by the water entering there the mouth of a large ſubterraneous cavern, through which it paſſed into the gulph of Bothnia. But this was confuted by the emerging of the ſhattered fragments on the return of the flood, of whatever was ſwallowed by the vortex during the ebb. At the ſame time this remark, which demoliſhed the hypotheſis of Kircher, pointed out the true cauſe of the phænomenon. It is nothing more than the effect of the violence of the ebb from the water being confined by the narrowneſs of the ſtreight, and the number of ſunken rocks diſſeminated in ſeveral parts of the paſſage.

East and West Greenland.

These two countries form the northern boundary of the king of Denmark's dominions, and are, indeed, the limits of all the discoveries hitherto made in that part of the globe. The former, namely, East Greenland, lies between the parallels of 76 and 80 deg. of north latitude; and 10 and 25 deg. of east longitude. The latter, or West Greenland, lies between 60 and 76 deg. of north latitude, and between 5 and 50 deg. of west longitude.

S. Are these countries inhabited?

M. The latter only. At last none of the inhabitants of East Greenland have been seen by the Europeans.

S. Is West Greenland populous?

M. By no means. The number of inhabitants has been computed at 957; but there may be many more in the inland parts, which are unknown to the Europeans.

Curiosities.

S. Are there any curiosities in this country?

M. Only those formed by the hand of nature; and of these the amazing islands of ice, and the whale-fishery carried on by the Europeans on the coast are the most remarkable

S. How large are these islands of ice?

M. They are of different dimensions, and many of them have been increasing for ages. Some of them are between two and three miles in length and nearly as much in breadth. Their thickness is proportional to their other dimensions, it being often above 150 feet, more than half of which is above the surface of the water; so that they make a most tremendous appearance.

S. Do not these amazing masses of ice render the navigation of the Greenland seas very dangerous?

M. They do; especially after they have been put in motion by a storm, when nothing can exhibit a more frightful appearance. Many ships have been crushed to pieces; no less than thirteen belonging to the Dutch were destroyed by them in one season. The bears, and other wild beasts, frequent these enormous rocks of ice, and are often driven out to sea with them. Many of them have been carried to the coasts of Iceland, and there killed by the inhabitants.

S. How

S. How is the whale fiſhery carried on in theſe ſeas?

M. When the ſhips fitted out for this fiſhery arrive on the Greenland coaſt, they keep a ſharp look out for the whales, which are diſcovered at a great diſtance by their ſpouting up the water to a great height. As ſoon as the ſeamen perceive this ejection of the water, they immediately give the word, *fall, fall*, when every man haſtens from the ſhip into his boat; ſix or eight hands being appointed to a boat and five or ſix boats generally belonging to one ſhip.

On approaching the whale, the harpooner ſtrikes the fiſh with a kind of large barbed dart, called a harpoon; and the whale, finding himſelf wounded, flies, with aſtoniſhing celerity to the bottom. A line is faſtened to the harpoon before it is darted into the fiſh; and ſhould any thing prevent the line from running out faſt enough, the boat would infallibly follow the whale to the bottom: care is therefore taken that nothing impedes the paſſage of the line, and to prevent the gunnel of the boat from taking fire from the violent friction, one of the ſeamen throws water on it continually. After the fiſh has been down for ſome time he is obliged to come up to the ſurface of the water for air, making the moſt dreadful noiſe with his ſpouting. In the mean time the ſeamen are not idle, they ſtrike him with a ſecond harpoon; upon which he again plunges into the deep. But he is now greatly weakened; ſo that on his appearing again for air, the ſeamen pierce him with ſpears in the moſt vital parts, till he ſpouts out ſtreams of blood inſtead of water, laſhing the ſea with his fins and tail in a moſt terrible manner. But this conflict is too violent to continue; he ſoon loſes his ſtrength, turns upon his back, and expires. If this happens near the ſhip they tow him to her; but otherwiſe drag him aſhore, cut off all the fat, which they call the blubber, and either extract the oil from it, or put it into caſks, and bring it home.

S. What quantity of oil do they generally extract from the blubber of the whale?

M. Between 60 and 100 barrels, each of which is worth between three and four pounds.

S. What part of the fiſh is that ſubſtance we call whalebone?

M. It is taken from the tongue of the fiſh. Whales have no teeth, and therefore a ſtrong elaſticity is neceſſary in

in the tongue, in order to preſs the food ſufficiently before it is ſwallowed. Accordingly the tongue is remarkably long and very elaſtic. It is about eighteen feet in length, incloſed in long pieces of that ſubſtance we call whalebone. Two hundred and fifty pieces of this ſubſtance are found on each ſide of the tongue, covered with a kind of hair reſembling that of a horſe. As to the bones of the body they are of no uſe, and accordingly are, with the other parts, after the blubber and whalebone are taken away, left to be devoured by the wild beaſts and birds of prey.

Hiſtorical Events and Revolutions.

Having finiſhed the account of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, it remains to ſpeak of the government and conſtitution of that kingdom. But in order to keep this narrative within proper bounds, I ſhall begin at the famous union of Calmar.

S. What was this union, and when was it concluded?

M. By the treaty or union of Calmar, the kingdoms of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were united under the ſame prince who held the ſceptre of Denmark. This remarkable revolution was brought about by Margaret, queen of Denmark, who mounted the throne in 1387. This princeſs, whoſe addreſs, firmneſs, and courage, rendered her ſo capable of holding the reins of government, continued to rule theſe kingdoms till her death. But her ſucceſſors being deſtitute of her abilities, the union of Calmar was diſſolved, and Guſtavius Erickſon placed on the Swediſh throne. The Norwegians, however, continued faithful; nor have they ever ſince revolted.

During the reign of Frederic III. who mounted the throne of Denmark in 1648, Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, declared war againſt the Daniſh monarch, and, after taking ſeveral of his territories, marched his army over the ice and beſieged Copenhagen itſelf; but, at laſt, by the interpoſition of England and France, a peace was concluded, by which the iſland of Rugen, with the fine provinces of Bleking, Halland, and Schunen, were ceded to the Swedes.

Frederic, though not capable of maintaining a war againſt Charles,

Charles, behaved with the greateſt intrepidity, and ſhewed, on every occaſion, the moſt conſummate abilities, both civil and military. This ſo endeared him to his ſubjects, that they ſurrendered into his hands the liberties they had hitherto enjoyed, by which he became the moſt abſolute ſovereign in Europe. This revolution, one of the moſt remarkable in the annals of hiſtory, was brought about in the following manner: The preceding war with Sweden had ſo greatly reduced the finances of the kingdom, that a ſufficient ſum of money could not be raiſed, by the uſual method of taxes, to pay off the army. The commons aſſembled, and demanded of the lords, whether they would ſubmit to pay the taxes, from which they had hitherto pleaded an exemption. The anſwer being in the negative, the commons and clergy, with their ſpeaker at their head, repaired immediately to the king, made him a ſolemn tender of their liberties, begged his protection againſt the nobles, and requeſted him to eſtabliſh, in his family, the hereditary ſucceſſion to their crown. Their tender was accepted protection was promiſed them, the gates of Copenhagen were ſhut, and the nobility, finding it would be mere madneſs to reſiſt the torrent, thought proper to ſubmit. This happened in the year 1660, ſince which time the king of Denmark has been an abſolute prince: but notwithſtanding his deſpotic power, the adminiſtration of civil juſtice in that kingdom is conſidered as a model for other nations. All the Daniſh laws are contained in one quarto volume, and drawn up in the common language of the country, in ſo plain and perſpicuous a manner, and founded on ſuch ſimple principles of juſtice, that every man may underſtand the whole.

DIALOGUE III.

Geography of Sweden.

THIS kingdom was formerly the largeſt diviſion of Scandinavia, the original inhabitants of which are ſuppoſed to have been deſcended from the Scythians, a wandering tribe, who had, for many centuries, no fixed habitation; but roved from place to place, in order to procure a ſuc-

a ſucceſſion of freſh paſtures for their flocks. Nor is it known at what period of time they firſt ſettled in towns, and other fixed places of abode.

S. What are the boundaries of Sweden?

M. It is bounded by the Baltic ſea, the Sound, and the Categate on the ſouth; by the unpaſſable mountains of Norway on the weſt; by Daniſh or Norwegian Lapland on the north; and by Muſcovy on the eaſt.

The extent of this kingdom is about 800 Engliſh miles in length, and 550 in breadth. It lies between 56 and 69 deg of north latitude, and between the 10th and 37th of eaſt longitude; but the deductions which muſt be made for ſeveral ſeas, and many capacious lakes, ſome of which are above 80 Engliſh miles long, and 20 broad: as alſo for rocks, woods, heaths marches, &c. which cover a great part of this country, reduce the habitable part to a ſmall proportion, comparatively to the extent of the whole.

Sweden is divided into ſeven provinces; and theſe are ſubdivided in the following manner:

Provinces.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Principal Towns.*
1. Sweden, properly ſo called, lying between Norway on the weſt, and the Gulph of Bothnia, is divided into eleven parts, viz.	Uplandia,	Stockholm & Upſal,
	Sudermania,	Nikopen,
	Weſtmania,	Arofen,
	Nericia,	Orebio,
	Geſtricia,	Geval,
	Helſingia,	Hadſwickwalt,
	Dalecarlia,	Hedemore,
	Medelpadia,	Setanger,
	Angermania,	Hernoſand,
	Jemtia, and	Uma Lua,
	Weſt Bothnia.	Piſtoia and Torne.
2. Gothnia, or Gothland, on the ſouth ſide of Swedeland, into three parts, viz.	E. Gothland,	Smalandia, — Norkoping and Calmar,
		Iſle of Oeland, — Barkholm.
	W. Gothland	Vermeland and Delia, — Gottenburg.
	S. Gothland.	Halland, — Helmſtat,
		Schonen, — Lunden and
		Bleking. — Chriſtianſtat.

Provinces.

Provinces.	*Subdivisions.*	*Principal Towns.*
3. Livonia, on the S. side of the gulph of Finland, into	Eſtonia or Eaſtland, Letten or Letitia.	Revel and Narva, Riga.
4. Ingria, on the north-eaſt of Livonia, into	Ingria proper, Ingermania, Soluſka.	Oreſcal or Noteberg, Caperio, and Juanegrod.
5. Finland, on the eaſt ſide of the gulph of Bothnia, into	Finland proper, Nylandia, Clarelia, Kexholm, Savolaxia, Tavaſtin, Cajunia.	Abo, Helſingfordia, Wyburg, Kexholm, Koſnipe, Javaſtus, Cajeneberge.
6. Swediſh Lapland in the northern part of the country, into ſix parts, viz.	Anjermania - Lapmark, Pitha-Lapmark, Uma-Lapmark, Lula-Lapmark, Tornea-Lapmark, Kimi-Lapmark.	Aoſalbo. Pitha, Uma, Lula, Tornea, Kimi.
7. The iſlands of	Gothland, Oeland, Oeſel, Dago, Aland, Hogland, and Rugen.	

Mr. Templeman has given us the following table of the diviſions and dimenſions of this country.

SWEDEN.						
Sweden.		Square Miles. 76,835	Sum total. 228,715	Length.	Breadth	Cap. Cit.
Sweden,		47,900		342	194	Stockholm
Gothland,		25,975		253	160	Calmar.
Schonen,		2960		77	56	Lunden.
			76,835			
Proteſtants.	Lapland and W. Bothnia,	76,000		420	340	Torne. Uma. Abo.
	Finland and E. Bothnia,	73,000		395	225	Cajenburg.
	Gothland, I.	1000		80	23	Wiſby.
	Oeland, I.	560		85	10	Barkholm.
			150,560			
Up. Sax.	Pomerania, P.	960		47	24	Stralſund.
	Rugen, I.	360		24	21	Bergen.
			1,320			

Climate and Soil.

S. Is the climate different from that of Denmark?

M. Very little. The latitudes between which it is bounded are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Denmark. The only difference conſiſts in the heats of ſummer, which have been often ſo violent here, as to ſet ſeveral of the foreſts on fire.

S. What reaſon can be given for this intenſe heat?

M. The long continuance of the ſun above the horizon during the ſummer months, and his rays being, as it were, conſolidated at the foot of the lofty ridges and mountains, which form the diviſions of this kingdom.

S. Is the ſoil of Sweden fertile?

M. In

M. In ſome places it is; but the far greater part is poor and ſhallow. Convinced of this, and at the ſame time, of the advantages that muſt reſult from the kingdom's being ſupplied with corn raiſed by the natives, the Swedes have laudably exerted themſelves in the improvement of huſbandry. In order to this, they have eſtabliſhed colleges of agriculture in ſeveral of the provinces. And the peaſants, inſtructed by the experiments and diſcoveries made in thoſe ſeminaries, and encouraged by the examples of perſons of fortune, have at length, in a great meaſure, corrected the natural ſterility of the country; and they now, in favourable ſeaſons, raiſe grain ſufficient to ſupply the wants of the inhabitants. The fields in ſummer are covered with a beautiful verdure, enamelled with flowers, and produce great quantities of currants, raſpberries, ſtrawberries, and other ſmall fruit. Gothland is the moſt fertile province in the kingdom, and bears large crops of wheat, barley, oats, beans, and peas.

S. Do not the long piercing winters frequently deſtroy the grain before the vegetation of the ſpring begins?

M. This might, perhaps, be the caſe, if the wheat were ſown in the autumn, as it is generally in England: but the method is different in Sweden; the vegetation is there ſo rapid that the corn is ripe in eight or ten weeks after it is ſown; and the ſoil is ſo meliorated by the froſt and coat of ſnow during the winter, that the land is fit to receive the ſeed almoſt as ſoon as the cold weather is over.

Natural Hiſtory.

S. What is there particular in the natural hiſtory of Sweden?

M. It is nearly the ſame with that of Denmark and Norway. The bird called the Sidenſwan is ſaid to be peculiar to Sweden: it is not much larger than a fieldfare, but its feathers are beautifully variegated, and its fleſh of a delicate flavour. The Swediſh horſes are conſiderably larger than thoſe of Denmark, and far more ſerviceable in war. But the principal wealth of Sweden conſiſts in her mines.

S. What is the chief produce of theſe mines?

M. It conſiſts in a great variety of articles; but the prin-

cipal are ſilver, copper, lead, and iron. Above 450 ſmelting-houſes and forges are employed in manufacturing the iron only; and the exports of that commodity have amounted to 300,000l. ſterling, yearly. The ſilver mines are remarkable for their depth; one of them is more than 140 fathoms; and its annual produce is above 20,000 crowns. The produce of the copper mines is uncertain; the veins of metal being often broken, and leſs rich in ſome places than in others.

Language, Religion, and Learning of the Inhabitants.

S. Is the language of Sweden different from that of Denmark?

M. It differs only in the dialect, both being derived from the ſame ſource; few of the politer part uſe it, but ſpeak and write the French and High Dutch in great perfection.

S. What religion is eſtabliſhed in Sweden?

M. The reformed religion, according to the tenets of Luther. Chriſtianity itſelf was introduced here in the ninth century, by the preaching of St. Sigifrid, a native of Britain. Lutheriſm was eſtabliſhed by Guſtavus Vaſa about the year 1523: and the Swedes have ever ſince borne ſuch an irreconcileable hatred to popery, that caſtration is the fate of every Roman Catholic prieſt diſcovered in their country. The archbiſhop of Upſal, the only dignitary of that title among the Lutherans, is primate of Sweden, and has thirteen ſuffragans under him; but no clergyman has the leaſt direction in the affairs of ſtate.

S. Have the arts and ſciences made any great progreſs in this country?

M. Sweden was, for many ages, covered with the veil of ignorance, which the moderns have happily withdrawn, and the nobility have lately exhibited ſeveral ſpecimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature. The name of Linnæus, now known in every corner of Europe, as the firſt botaniſt of the age, will be immortal. And the fine arts are encouraged and cultivated with ſucceſs.

Curioſities.

S. Are there any remarkable curioſities in Sweden?

M. Yes; ſeveral. In ſome parts of the kingdom are monumental inſcriptions rudely cut on rocks or rough hewn ſtone, in the old Gothic language, and Runic character. Here is alſo a manuſcript tranſlation of the Evangeliſts, by Ulphilas, a biſhop of the Goths in Thrace, about the year 758. Between five and ſix leagues from Gottenburg is a frightful precipice, from the ſummit of which a tremendous cataract of water ruſhes with ſuch impetuoſity into a capacious bed of water, that maſts of ſhips, and other large pieces of timber, precipitated with the ſtream, ſink ſo deep that they rarely emerge to the ſurface under half an hour. How deep this bed of water may be cannot be known; for though a plummet faſtened to a line of ſeveral hundred fathoms in length has been uſed, no bottom could be found.

Manufactures and Trade.

S. Are there many manufactures in Sweden?

M. There are many; but all of them lately erected; for even the manufacturing of iron, the chief ſupport of this country, was introduced in the ſixteenth century.—Before that time the Swedes ſent their own iron ore to the Hanſe Towns, and brought it back again manufactured into utenſils. But they have now founderies for cannon, forges for anchors and fire-arms, wire and flatting-mills, &c. Vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, and ſteel, are alſo now wrought in this country.

S. What are the principal exports of Sweden?

M. They are moſt of them of the bulky, though uſeful, kind; conſiſting of maſts, deals, and other timber; tar, pitch, oak, bark, pot-aſh, utenſils of wood, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, fiſh, and ſhips completely fitted out for the ſea. There are twenty-four towns in Sweden, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ſhips, and are hence called Staple-towns.

Hiſtorical Tranſactions.

The ancient hiſtory of Sweden, like that of moſt other nations, is enveloped in fable, and obſcured by relations of the moſt romantic kind. There is, however, great reaſon to believe it was the ſeat of the Scandinavian princes, and that great part of the army that overthrew the Roman empire, iſſued from this kingdom. I have already mentioned that Sweden was united to Denmark by the treaty of Calmar, and that Guſtavus Vaſa was the perſon who freed his country from the Daniſh yoke. This prince eſtabliſhed Lutheriſm in Sweden, and died in 1544, leaving the crown to his ſon Eric.

From the death of Guſtavus Vaſa, to the time of Guſtavus Adolphus, the Swediſh hiſtory is ſcarcely any thing more than a ſeries of civil diſſenſions and inteſtine broils; but that great prince began his career of glory at an early age. He checked the inroads of the Danes, who had taken the advantage of the civil tumults of Sweden to enter that kingdom. On the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was placed on the throne, and declared of age by the States, though only then in his eighteenth year. The tranſactions of this great prince would fill a large volume. He was a powerful protector of the proteſtants in Germany; ſubdued Ingriæ, Livonia, and Pomerania; and was killed upon the plain of Lutzen, after gaining a complete victory.

Adolphus was ſucceeded by his daughter Chriſtiana, then only ſix years of age. She received a noble education; but her fine genius taking a romantic turn, ſhe reſigned her crown to her couſin Charles Guſtavus, embraced the popiſh religion, and retired into a convent at Rome.

Charles Guſtavus, generally known by the name of Charles XI. for ſome time ſupported the glory of the Swediſh throne; but entering into a ſubſidual treaty with Lewis XIV. of France, a powerful confederacy was formed againſt him, and ſeveral of his territories taken from him. He, however, recovered, by the treaty of St. Germain's, all he had loſt, except a few places in Germany. The tranquillity which followed he employed in enſlaving and beggaring his ſubjects, in order to render himſelf a deſpotic prince. He ſucceeded in his attempt, and the Swedes were reduced to the

the ſame condition as the Danes. This victory over the liberties of his people rendered him ſo reſpectable among the powers of Europe, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryſwic were opened under his mediation. He died in 1696, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, then a minor.

Charles XII. generally ſtiled the hero of Sweden, found a powerful confederacy, conſiſting of the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy, formed againſt him; but by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh and Dutch fleets, he made head againſt them all, laid ſiege to Copenhagen, and obliged the king of Denmark to ſign the peace of Travendahl. He tranſported 20,000 troops into Livonia, routed the czar of Muſcovy's army, conſiſting of 80,000 men, dethroned Auguſtus, king of Poland, ravaged Saxony, and gained ſo many battles, that his friendſhip was courted by all the powers of Europe. But this career of glory proved his deſtruction; for, thinking himſelf invincible, he formed the romantic deſign of dethroning Peter the Great, then czar of Muſcovy and accordingly penetrated a conſiderable diſtance into the Ruſſian territories, and formed the ſiege of Pultowa. But before he could make himſelf maſter of the place, the czar appeared at the head of a numerous army. Charles immediately drew up his forces and gave Peter battle; but his army was totally defeated, and he himſelf obliged to fly for refuge to the Turks. By this fatal battle the Swediſh monarch loſt more than he had gained by all his victories. His behaviour in Turkey was rather that of a madman than a hero; for, being deſired to quit the Turkiſh territories, he refuſed to comply, and defended himſelf for ſome time at the head of his little corps of 300 men, againſt the whole Ottoman army. At length he returned to Sweden, invaded Norway, and in the year 1718 was killed by a muſket-ball in the trenches before Fredrickſhall, which he had inveſted with his army.

Weary of an arbitrary government, the Swedes, on the death of Charles XII. determined to recover the liberty they had loſt. In order to accompliſh this they offered the crown to Ulrica Eleonora, Charles's youngeſt ſiſter, who had ſome time before married the Landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel, on condition of her transferring the ſupreme power to the ſtates, and acknowledging ſhe held the ſceptre from them.

The conditions were accepted, and a new conſtitution framed, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden could ſcarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exerciſe of government, and even in the education of his own children.

But, in 1772, the whole ſyſtem of the Swediſh government was changed by the late king Guſtavus III. who aſcended the throne in the beginning of 1791. Having gained over the people and the army, with the utmoſt addreſs and diſſimulation, he compelled the ſtates to accept a new form of government, and take an oath which he dictated to them himſelf. By this revolution the power of the crown in Sweden has become nearly deſpotic; though, it muſt be confeſſed, that Guſtavus, by whom it was thus violently aſſumed, exerciſed it with a conſiderable degree of moderation.

This monarch was ſhot at a maſquerade by an aſſaſſin named Ankerſtroem on the 16th of March, 1792, and died on the 29th of the ſame month. The prince royal, being fourteen years of age, was immediately proclaimed king by the name of Guſtavus Adolphus, and the duke of Sudermania, his uncle, and brother to the late king, in compliance with his majeſty's will, was declared ſole regent, and guardian of the young ſovereign, till he ſhould attain his majority, which was fixed at the age of eighteen.

Forces and Revenues.

S. Are the forces of Sweden now as reſpectable as they were in the time of Charles XII.

M. Far from it. Their behaviour in their war againſt the king of Pruſſia was ſpiritleſs, and their courage contemptible. The forces are nothing more than a well regulated militia, conſiſting of about 40,000 men; and the Swedes could, a few years ago, have fitted out forty ſhips of the line.

S. What may the revenues of Sweden amount to?

M. About a million ſterling per annum. They ariſe from the crown-lands and cuſtoms; the ſilver and copper mines; tythes which the crown ſequeſtered from the clergy at the reformation; the pole-tax and fines; ſtamped paper and other duties payable on proceedings at law.

DIA-

DIALOGUE IV.

The Geography of Ruſſia, or Muſcovy, in Europe.

S. IS not the whole Ruſſian empire in Europe, that you make this diſtinction.

M. It is not. A conſiderable part of it is in Aſia; but our knowledge of this powerful empire is ſtill ſo imperfect, that it is very difficult, perhaps impoſſible, to draw, with any degree of accuracy, the line of ſeparation between the European and Aſiatic Ruſſia.

S. Why ſhould it be more difficult to fix the line of ſeparation between Aſia and Europe, in this country, than in any other?

M. Becauſe it paſſes through territories little known, and very thinly inhabited; almoſt deſtitute of towns, and deſtitute of commerce: the greater part of the inhabitants ſtill continue to lead a wandering life with their flocks and herds; or in hunting wild beaſts, and carrying their furs and peltry to ſome of the large towns of the empire.

But though this line of ſeparation cannot be accurately drawn, yet, according to the moſt authenic accounts, it lies between the parallels of 47 and 72 deg. of north latitude, and 25 and 65 deg. of eaſt longitude: being about 1500 miles in length, and 1100 in breadth.

S. What are the boundaries of the European part of this vaſt empire?

M. It is bounded by the frozen ocean on the north; by Aſiatic Ruſſia on the eaſt; by Little Tartary and Turkey on the ſouth; and by Poland, the Baltic ſea, and Sweden, on the weſt. The diviſions, and chief towns in each diviſion, are the following:

	Provinces.	*Chief Towns.*
Northern Provinces.	Lapland,	Kola.
	Samoieda,	Golatina,
	Bellamornſkoy,	Kemi,
	Meſeen,	Meſeen.
	Dwina,	Archangel,
	Syrianes,	Kangorod,
	Permia,	Iſina,
	Rubeninſki,	Kargapol,
	Belacſeda.	Vitegre.
Middle Provinces.	Regan or Pereſlaf,	Razenſkoi.
	Belozero,	Belozero,
	Walogda,	Wologda,
	Jereſlaf,	Jereſlaf,
	Tweer,	Tweer,
	Moſcow,	Moſcow,
	Belgorod.	Woroneiz, or Veroneſe.
Eaſtern Provinces.	Bulgar,	Bulgar,
	Kaſan,	Kaſan,
	Czeremiſſi,	Proleckarſa,
	Little Novogorod,	Niſe-Novogorod,
	Don Coſſacs Territory.	Donetſkoi.
Weſtern Provinces.	Great Novogorod,	Novogorod,
	Ruſſian Finland,	Wyburg,
	Kexholm,	Kexholm,
	Karelia,	Nottebur,
	Ingria.	Peterſburg.
Southern Provinces.	Livonia,	Riga, Narva, Revel, Dorpat, Pernaw, Pliſkow.
	Smolonſko,	Smolonſko,
	Zernigof,	Zernigof,
	Seeſik,	Seeſik,
	Ukrain, or the country of the old Coſſacs.	Kiof, or Kiow.

Mr.

Mr. Templeman has given us the following dimenſions of the Ruſſian empire in Europe.

Ruſſia.		ſquare miles.	leng.	bred.	chief cities.
Greek Church.	Ruſ. or Moſ.	784650	1160	1050	Moſcow.
	Belgorod,	7?900	375	285	Waronetz.
	Don Coſſacks,	57000	400	280	Panchina.
	Uk. Coſſacks,	45000	330	205	Kiow.
	Lapland.	72000	405	270	Kola.
Conquer'd from Sweden ſince 1700.	Finland,	41310	302	180	Peterſburg
	Livonia,	21525	218	145	Riga.
	Ingria.	9100	175	90	Nottenburg.
	Total	1103485			

Climate, Soil, and Productions.

S. Is there not a great diverſity in the climate and ſoil of Ruſſia?

M. There is. You will be eaſily convinced of this by conſidering the parallel of latitude by which it is bounded; for it thence appears, that the longeſt day in the ſouthern parts of the empire, is not more than fifteen hours and a half, while in the northern diſtricts it is above two months, the ſun being conſtantly above the horizon during that interval of time; hence the ſoil muſt be various, as well as the productions. The vegetation in the northern parts is as quick as in Sweden and Norway: and from the benefit the earth receives from the ſnow, the natural manure of Ruſſia, corn grows in great plenty in the ſouthern provinces, and might be cultivated with advantage much farther to the northward, were the inhabitants properly acquainted with agriculture. Peter the Great and his ſucceſſors, convinced of this, have ſpared no pains to teach the Ruſſians the art of huſbandry; and from the ſucceſs that has already attended their labours, there is reaſon to think that corn will, in a few years, be as plentiful in Ruſſia as it is now in the ſouthern countries of Europe.

S. What are the principal productions of Ruſſia?

M. Theſe, like the climate, are very various; timber, particularly oak and fir, is found in prodigious quantities in the northern provinces. Pitch, tar, hemp, and flax, and other naval ſtores, abound here; while rhubarb, wax, honey, rice, melons, and other valuable commodities, are found in the ſouthern.

S. Are there any mines in Ruſſia?

M. Yes; many. They are as plentiful here as in Scandinavia. Their produce has, indeed, hitherto been ſmall, from the ignorance of the natives; but the art of mineralogy begins now to be pretty well known, and is practiſed with great ſucceſs.

Mountains, Rivers, Lakes, and Foreſts.

S. What are the principal mountains of Ruſſia?

M. The Zimnopoias mountains, ſuppoſed to be the celebrated Montes Riphæi of the ancients, are the moſt remarkable both for their amazing height and the perpetual ſnows that cover their ſummits. But beſides theſe, there are a vaſt variety of others, ſome forming extenſive chains, and others ſcattered ſingly in different parts of the country.

S. Is Ruſſia remarkable for its rivers?

M. Few countries can boaſt of more, or larger rivers than Ruſſia; but the principal are the Wolga, the Don, or Tanais; and the Boriſthenes, or Dnieper. The Wolga, eſteemed the largeſt river in Europe, riſes from the lake of Uranow, near the frontiers of Lithuania, in 56 deg. 15 min. north latitude. At about ſix miles below its ſource it begins to be navigable; and, after flowing in a winding courſe about 2000 Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea, bout 50 miles below Aſtracan. In its courſe it receives the waters of above 40 rivers, ſome of them very large; waſhes the walls of above 70 towns; fertilizes a wonderful tract of country, and produces amazing quantities of large fiſh, particularly ſturgeon, ſalmon, pike, &c. The Don, or Tanais, forms, during great part of its courſe, the boundary between Ruſſia and Aſia. It riſes in the province of Rezan, a few miles from the north-eaſt of the lake Iwam-Oſero. In one part of its courſe it comes ſo near the Wolga, that Peter the Great formed the noble ſcheme of opening

opening a communication between theſe two rivers by means of a canal: but the incurſions of the Nogayan Tartars obliged him to lay aſide his deſign. Hence the Don directs its courſe towards the ſouth weſt, and, after receiving the waters of many rivers, waſhing the walls of ſeveral cities, and forming various beautiful iſlands, falls into the Palus Mœotis, or ſea of Aſoph, near the famous fortreſs of that name. The Boriſthenes, or Dnieper, has its ſource in the foreſt of Walchonſki, and after running through the countries of Lithuania, the Zoporag Coſſacks, and the Nagaiſch Tartars, falls into the Uxine, or Black-Sea, near the fortreſs of Oczakow. This river has no leſs than thirteen cataracts within a ſmall diſtance of one another.

S. What lakes are there in Ruſſia?

M. The lakes of this country are numerous; but two only are remarkable, the Lake of Ladoga, and that of Onega. The former is conſidered as one of the largeſt in Europe, and is thought to contain a greater number of fiſh than any other. It lies between the gulph of Finland and the lake of Onega; and has a communication with that gulph by the river Nieva. Peter the Great formed the deſign of cutting a large canal on the ſouth ſide of this lake from Schluſſoburg to New Ladoga. He began the work, but did not live to finiſh it, which was done by the empreſs Anne, in the year 1732. The latter, namely, the Lake of Onega, is about 40 leagues in length, and 18 in breadth. It lies about 30 leagues N. E. of that of Ladoga.

S. Ruſſia is, I think, remarkable for its foreſts?

M. It is; they abound in this extenſive country. In many places prodigious tracts of land form one continued foreſt; and here the vaſt quantities of timber, pitch, tar, and turpentine, ſent to different parts of Europe, are produced.

Animals, Birds, Fiſhes, &c.

S. Are there any animals here different from thoſe found in Scandinavia?

M. There are ſome; but not many. The Lynx, or Ounce, is a native of this country, and found in the pine-tree foreſts. It is not delicate in its choice, preying upon every creature

creature it can maſter; but remarkable for its piercing eye and the fierceneſs with which it ſeizes its prey.

S. What other animals are there in Ruſſia?

M. A very great variety. Hyænas, wolves, bears, foxes of different colours; and a great number of other animals, common in the northern climes, are found here, and are of great advantage to the Ruſſians on account of their furs and ſkins. But the furs of the black fox and the ermine, are more valued than thoſe from the ſame creatures in any other country. Their oxen, cows, and ſheep, are ſmall, but their fleſh is well taſted. Formerly the dromedary and camel were the principal beaſts of burden in this country; but Peter the Great introduced the uſe of horſes, and they are now employed in almoſt every part of the empire. Rein-deer are found here in plenty, and the Lapland method of travelling in ſledges drawn by that animal, is uſed in the northern parts of Ruſſia.

S. Are there any remarkable birds, or fiſh, in the Ruſſian empire?

M. The birds are very numerous here, but nearly the ſame with thoſe found in other northern countries. The ſame may be ſaid of the fiſh. The quantity of the latter only is remarkable. Great numbers of ſmall veſſels are employed in catching the fiſh, and many ſhips of burthen, in the exportation of it to other countries. The beluga, indeed, is principally found in Ruſſia. It reſembles the ſturgeon, and is from twelve to fifteen feet in length: its fleſh is extremely white and very delicious. The famous caviar, ſo highly eſteemed in moſt parts of Europe, is made of the roes of the ſturgeon and beluga. But the moſt extraordinary circumſtance is, that oyſters, muſcles, ſcallops, cockles, and other ſhell fiſh, are found in the freſh-water lakes and rivers of this country.

S. I have often heard of the barenetz, or lamb-plant, and that it is a native of this country. Is there any truth in the accounts of this remarkable production?

M. The whole is a fiction, invented by the inhabitants to ſupport their own intereſt. They indeed prepare lamb-ſkins in a very delicate manner, and ſell them to the Turks as the ſkin of this pretended vegetable lamb.

S. In what manner are theſe ſkins prepared?

M. When

M. When an ewe is near the time of yeaning, they kill her, take out the lamb, and flay it immediately. This ſkin they extend upon the graſs, expoſe it to the dew, and wet it frequently with ſour milk. In a ſhort time the ſkin by this treatment, and the action of the rays of the ſun, is rendered amazingly thin, ſoft, ſmooth, and white as ſnow.

S. But what intereſt can they have in pretending the ſkin thus dreſſed is taken from a vegetable production?

M. The ſect of Mahometans inhabiting the adjacent countries, are prohibited by their religion, from wearing the ſkins of animals. The Ruſſians therefore invented this fiction, which has removed the ſcruples of the Turks; and they are ſo fond of theſe ſkins, that they purchaſe them at a very exorbitant price.

Number of People, their Cuſtoms, Manners, &c.

S. Can any tolerable computation be made of the number of people in this extenſive empire?

M. Such a computation muſt neceſſarily be very vague, but the population of Ruſſia is not eſtimated at more than about 27 millions, including even the new acquiſitions of the Crimea and Poland. This is but a very ſmall number for ſo large an extent of land; and if the prodigious ſwarms of barbarians that iſſued from this country at the deſtruction of the Roman empire be conſidered, we ſhall be inclined to believe that Ruſſia was anciently much fuller of inhabitants than it is at preſent.

S. What are the cuſtoms peculiar to the Ruſſians?

M. They are greatly changed within the preſent century. To enumerate the cuſtoms that prevailed while the people were barbarous, and ſtupidly ignorant, would be uſeleſs and diſguſting. Drinking, and ſmoaking tobacco, were their favourite amuſements; and there were not leſs than 4000 brandy-ſhops in the city of Moſcow. But the ſeverity of Peter the Great, and the prudence of ſucceeding princes, have, in a great meaſure, corrected this abuſe; the cuſtoms and manners of other countries are happily introduced, and the Ruſſians are become another people. It cannot however be denied, that drunkenneſs is ſtill too common a vice in this empire; nor are even the prieſts and ladies aſhamed of it on holidays.

But

But notwithſtanding this, the Ruſſians are of a ſtrong and healthy conſtitution, live to a great age, are inured to labour, and can undergo any fatigue. They will travel many days without any other ſupport than a ſmall quantity of rye bread, cut into little pieces, and dried again in the oven. One of theſe pieces they put frequently into their mouths, and the firſt ſtream of water they meet with, completes the repaſt. The women are generally fair, comely, and well-ſhaped; of a condeſcending and obliging behaviour, and free from that moroſeneſs and auſterity of manners, ſo remarkable in the men.

Religion and Learning.

S. What ſect of religion is eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia?

M. That of the Greek church. But in ſo extenſive a country, perſons of almoſt every religion may be found. The conquered provinces retain their former manner of worſhip; many in the ſouthern parts are Mahometans; while the natives of Siberia, and the uncultivated parts of Lapland, are little better than Pagans.

S. What is the ſtate of learning in Ruſſia?

M. Learning in Ruſſia reſembles the rays of the morning, gradually ſpreading the chearful light over the whole country, and promiſing a glorious day. For ſo late as the end of the laſt century, Ruſſia was involved in a night of ignorance. Senſible of this, and of the great advantages that muſt accrue from improvements of the mind, Peter the Great erected ſeveral academies and other ſeminaries of learning in various parts of his extended dominions. He founded no leſs than three academies at Moſcow; one for claſſical learning; one for mathematics: and the other for navigation and aſtronomy. At Peterſburg he founded an univerſity and four academies. The firſt is for the ſciences and belles letters, the members of which are called the Petropolitan ſociety; the ſecond is for navigation; the third for the dead languages, and the fourth for military improvements. The Petropolitan ſociety have publiſhed ſeveral volumes of papers, which have been well received by the learned, eſpecially thoſe on mathematical, aſtronomical,

cal, and philoſophical ſubjects. M. de Shorealow, chamberlain to the empreſs Elizabeth, founded an univerſity at Moſcow. The late empreſs Catharine II. alſo founded a univerſity at Peterſburgh, and invited ſome of the moſt learned foreigners in every faculty, to whom ſhe gave very liberal appointments. She likewiſe founded a number of ſchools for the education of the lower claſſes of her ſubjects, in various parts of the empire.

Language.

S. What is the language of Ruſſia?

M. A mixture of the Poliſh and Sclavonian. But this is the language of the common people only, the nobility and gentry generally ſpeak French and High Dutch. Their prieſts ſpeak the modern Greek.

Trade and Commerce.

S. What are the exports of Ruſſia?

M. They are various, and many of them very valuable, as furs and peltry of different kinds, red-leather, linen, thread, ſail-cloth, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, turpentine, wax, honey, tallow, iſing-glaſs, linſeed, pot-aſh, ſoap, feathers, train-oil, hog's-briſtles, muſk, rhubarb, and other drugs; timber, particularly fir and oak.

S. What are her principal imports?

M. Tea, ſilk, cotton, gold, &c. from China; Indian ſilks, curled lamb-ſkins, &c. from Bochara; raw and wrought ſilks from Perſia? woollen manufactures, ſugars, &c. from Great Britain; wines, brandies, &c. from France.

S. Is the balance of trade in her favour?

M. Greatly ſo: according to the beſt information the annual exports of Ruſſia at preſent amount to about 2,400,000l. and her imports do not exceed 1,600,000l.; ſo that the balance of trade is yearly 800,000l. ſterling in her favour.

S. You mentioned the importation of tea, &c. from China; how is that trade carried on?

M. By caravans, over land.

Revenues and Expences.

S. Can the revenues of this large empire be computed?

M. Not with any certainty: it is however known that they are amazingly increaſed, even ſince the death of Peter the Great; ſo that they cannot amount to leſs than ſix millions yearly. This ſeems but a very ſmall ſum for ſo prodigious an extent of country; but when the great value of money in Ruſſia, compared with that in Great Britain, is conſidered, it will be found a very conſiderable revenue.

S. Are the expences of the Ruſſian empire conſiderable?

M. They are; eſpecially in time of war. Her armies are prodigiouſly numerous; but maintained at a far leſs expence than ours. The court is ſplendid and magnificent; the guards and attendants ſuperb, and very conſiderable ſums are annually expended in the encouragement of learning.

Curioſities.

S. Is Ruſſia remarkable for curioſities?

M. They are not numerous; but ſome of them equal to any in Europe.

S. What are the moſt remarkable curioſities in Ruſſia?

M. The building of Peterſburg and the fortreſs of Cronſtadt; the manner of travelling in Ruſſia; and the great bell at Moſcow. The city of Peterſburg ſtands on both ſides of the river Neva in a ſpot ſo full of water and ſwamps, that the whole foundation is laid upon piles. So lately as the year 1703, there were only a few fiſhermen's huts here; but Peter the Great ſaw the benefit that muſt reſult from a city built on this ſpot, and accordingly employed above three hundred thouſand men for ſeveral years in driving piles and laying the foundations of this celebrated place. The city is without walls, but in the center is the fortreſs of Cronſtadt, deemed almoſt impregnable. Perhaps no other potentate in the known world could have executed a work like this; nor is there hardly a curioſity, the Egyptian pyramids excepted, that can be compared with the building of Peterſburg.

The

The facility and expedition with which the longeſt journies are performed in Ruſſia are aſtoniſhing to a ſtranger. They travel, like the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in ſledges drawn by rein-deer, when the ſnow is frozen hard enough to bear them: but, in the internal parts of Ruſſia, their ſledges are drawn by horſes; and by the beginning of February, the ſledge-way is ſo well beaten, that they erect a kind of houſe upon the ſledges, and travel night and day. By this means they often paſs from Peterſburg to Moſcow in three days, though the diſtance is 400 miles.

The great bell of Moſcow, weighs no leſs than 443772 pounds. This enormous bell was caſt in the reign of the empreſs Anne, and ſuſpended in the tower of the great church at Moſcow: but the beam on which it was hung being burnt by an accidental fire, it fell down, and a large piece was broke out at the mouth, which rendered it uſeleſs.

Hiſtorical Events.

S. Was the empire of Ruſſia peopled in the early ages of the world?

M. It was certainly peopled very early, ſome ſay in the ſecond century after the diſperſion at Babel. But however that be, it is known, that the ſouthern parts were full of people in the time of Tamerlane the Great. We have however no authentic accounts of the Ruſſians, till the time of the eſtabliſhment of chriſtianity among them, which happened in the beginning of the tenth century; and even from that period to the reign of Peter the Great, the relations are confuſed, and the times when many events happened uncertain; owing to the ignorance and perverſeneſs of this people.

S. When did Peter the Great aſcend the throne?

M. In the year 1696. But it will be impoſſible to give, in the compaſs I am confined to, even a ſhort detail of the actions of that wonderful man, who may be ſaid to have eſtabliſhed a new empire, and filled it with a new people; ſo greatly is the face of the country changed, as well as the manners of the inhabitants. Inſtead of extenſive tracts of land, inhabited by barbarous, rude, ignorant, and ſlothful people, almoſt deſtitute of trade, and without any ſeaport, the frozen river of Archangel excepted; it is now a trading,

trading rich, and flouriſhing empire, inhabited by an induſtrious, laborious, and warlike people; its trade is very great, and its marine reſpectable. A conſiderable part of the country is already cultivated, and learning has ſpread her ſocial rays over many parts of Ruſſia.

S. What methods were taken by Peter, to introduce ſo happy a change in his dominions?

M. He purſued ſuch methods as were never before taken by any potentate of Europe. Soon after his aſcenſion to the throne, he left the management of his empire in the hands of proper perſons, and ſet out as an attendant on his own ambaſſadors; viſited moſt of the courts of Europe; made himſelf maſter of their principles of government; and to acquire the art of naval architecture, he worked as a common ſhip-wright in the yards of Deptford and Sardam. By theſe means he completed himſelf in ſhip-building and navigation: he afterwards roſe gradually through every rank and ſervice, both by ſea and land. Charles XII. of Sweden, often defeated the Ruſſians; but theſe defeats rendered Peter a conqueror upon the whole, becauſe they added experience to his courage. The battle of Pultowa put a period to Charles's career of glory, and gave Peter an uninterrupted ſeries of conqueſts and ſucceſs. Theſe, however, were not the chief glories of Peter's reign: he applied himſelf, with amazing aſſiduity, to the eſtabliſhment of commerce, and the introduction of the arts and ſciences among his people. The ſucceſs was equal to his moſt ſanguine wiſhes: Peterſburg ſoon became the mart of trade in theſe countries, and men of learning, from every country, flocked to Ruſſia, where they were ſure of meeting with encouragement. For Peter had no regard to rank, diſtinct from merit; but wherever the latter was diſcovered the czar was at once the patron and the friend. Purſuits like theſe, added to the conqueſts he had made, raiſed the credit of Peter to the higheſt pitch: his friendſhip was courted by all the powers of Europe; and, at his death, which happened in the year 1725, he was conſidered as the moſt powerful prince of his age. His ſucceſſors have wiſely followed the ſteps of this great man. The late empreſs Catharine II. eſpecially, laboured from the commencement of her reign, and with the greateſt ſucceſs, to increaſe the power and political conſequence of her coun-

try,

try, to attain which end it must be confeſſ'd that ſhe ſometimes did not heſitate to violate the principles of juſtice and humanity, as in the caſe of the diſmemberment of Poland.

The preſent emperor of Ruſſia is Paul I. who aſcended the throne Nov. 9. 1796, on the death of Catherine II. He was born Oct. 1. 1754.

DIALOGUE V.

Geography of England.

ENGLAND is of a triangular form, the three promontories called the Land's-end, Dover-head, and Caithneſs, forming the three corners, or angular points. It lies between the parallels of 49 deg. 54 min. and 55 deg. 53 min. north latitude; and between 6 deg. 10 min. W. and 1 deg. 55 min eaſt longitude. It is bounded on the north by Scotland; on the eaſt by the German ocean; on the ſouth by the Engliſh channel; and on the weſt by St. George's channel.

S. What are the ſubdiviſions of England?

M. They have been different at different periods of time. During the Roman government it was ſubdivided into three parts:

1. Britania Prima, comprehending the ſouthern parts of the kingdom.

2. Britania Secunda, in which both the weſtern parts and Wales were comprehended.

3. Maxima Cæſarienſis, which extended from the Trent to the wall of Severus, and ſometimes to that of Adrian, in Scotland.

After the Saxons became maſters of England they divided it into ſeven unequal parts, which they called kingdoms; each leader appropriating to himſelf thoſe parts which he had either conquered himſelf, or been the chief inſtrument in reducing.

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, usually ſtiled the Saxon Heptarchy.

Kingdoms.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
1. Kent, founded by Hengiſt in 457, and ended in 823.	Kent,	Canterbury.
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600.	Suſſex, Surry,	Chicheſter. Southwark.
3. Eaſt Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793.	Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridge, With the Iſle of Ely,	Norwich. Bury St. Edmunds. Cambridge. Ely.
4. Weſt Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060.	Cornwal, Devon, Dorſet, Somerſet, Wilts, Hants, Berks,	Launceſton. Exeter. Dorcheſter. Bath. Saliſbury. Wincheſter. Abingdon.

Kingdom

Kingdoms.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792.	Lancaster,	Lancaster.
	York,	York.
	Durham,	Durham.
	Cumberland,	Carlisle.
	Westmoreland,	Appleby.
	Northumberland and Scotland to the Frith of Edinburgh,	Newcastle.
6. East Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746.	Essex,	London.
	Middlesex and part of Hertford	
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874.	Glouceſter,	Glouceſter.
	Hereford,	Hereford.
	Worceſter,	Worceſter.
	Warwick,	Warwick.
	Leiceſter,	Leiceſter.
	Rutland,	Oakham.
	Northampton,	Northampton.
	Lincoln,	Lincoln.
	Huntingdon,	Huntingdon.
	Bedford,	Bedford.
	Buckingham,	Ayleſbury.
	Oxford,	Oxford.
	Stafford,	Stafford.
	Derby,	Derby.
	Salop,	Shrewſbury.
	Nottingham.	Nottingham
	Cheſter,	Cheſter.
	And the other part of Hertford,	Hertford.

About

About the year 890, Alfred the Great divided England into counties, which, with some little alteration continue to this day; and is generally called, the Modern Division of England into Counties and the six Circuits.

Circuits.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
1. Home Circuit.	Essex,	Chelmsford, Colchester, and Harwich.
	Hertford,	Hertford, St. Alban's, Royston, Ware, Hitchen, and Baldock.
	Kent,	Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, and Deptford.
	Surry,	Southwark, Kingston, Guildford, Croydon, Epsom, and Richmond.
	Sussex,	Chichester, Lewes, Rye, East Grinstead, and Hastings.
2. Norfolk Circuit.	Bucks,	Aylesbury, Buckingham, Wickham, and Marlow.
	Bedford,	Bedford, Ampthill, Woburn, Dunstable, Luton, and Biggleswade.
	Huntingdon,	Huntingdon, St. Ives, and Kimbolton.
	Cambridge,	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, and Royston.
	Suffolk,	Bury, Ipswich, Sudbury, Leostoff, and part of Newmarket.
	Norfolk,	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth.

Circuits.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
3. Oxford Circuit.	Oxon,	Oxford, Banbury, Chippingnorton, Henly, Burford, Whitney, Dorcheſter, and Woodſtock.
	Berks,	Abingdon, Windſor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead.
	Glouceſter,	Glouceſter, Tewkſbury, Cirenceſter, and part of Briſtol.
	Worceſter,	Worceſter, Eveſham and Droitwich.
	Monmouth,	Monmouth, and Chepſtow.
	Hereford,	Hereford and Lemſter.
	Salop,	Shrewſbury, Ludlow, Bridgenorth, and Winlock.
	Stafford,	Stafford, Litchfield, and Newcaſtle Under Line.
4. Midland Circuit.	Warwick,	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham and Stratford upon Avon.
	Leiceſter,	Leiceſter, Melton-Mowbray, and Aſhby de la Zouch.
	Derby,	Derby, and Cheſterfield.
	Nottingham,	Nottingham, Southwell, and Newark.
	Lincoln,	Lincoln, Stamford, Boſton, and Grantham.
	Rutland,	Oakham, and Uppingham.
	Northampton,	Northampton, Peterborough, and Daventry.

Circuits.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
5. Western Circuit.	Hants,	Winchester, Southampton. Portsmouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Christchurch, and Newport, in the Isle of Wight.
	Wilts,	Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmsbury, Wilton, and Chippenham.
	Dorset,	Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborn, Shaftsbury, Pool, Blandford, and Bridport.
	Somerset,	Bath, Wells, Bristol in part, Taunton, Bridgwater, and Ilchester.
	Devon,	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstaple, Biddeford, Tiverton, Dartmouth, Tavistock, and Oakhampton.
	Cornwall,	Launceston, Falmouth, Truro, Saltash, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padstow, and Tregony.
6. Northern Circuit.	York,	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Beverly, Northallerton, and Burlington, or Bridlington.
	Durham,	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-castle, and Awkland.

Circuits.

Circuits.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
6. Northern Circuit continued.	Northumberland,	Newcaſtle, Berwick, Tinmouth, Shields, and Hexham.
	Lancaſter,	Lancaſter, Mancheſter, Preſton, Liverpool, and Wiggan.
	Weſtmoreland,	Appleby, Kendal, and Longſdale.
	Cumberland,	Carliſle, Penrith, Cockermouth, and Whitehaven.

Middleſex being the ſeat of the ſupreme courts of juſtice, is not comprehended in any circuit; nor is Cheſhire, as being a county palatine.

	Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Counties exclusive of the Circuits.	Middleſex,	London, Weſtminſter, Uxbridge, Brentford, Barnet, Highgate, Hampſtead, Kenſington, Hackney, and Hampton-court.
	Cheſter,	Cheſter, Nantwich, Macclesfield, and Malpas.

Circuits of Wales.

Circuits.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
North-East Circuit.	Flint,	Flint, St. Aſaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh,	Denbigh, Wriaham, and Ruthyn.
	Montgomery,	Montgomery, and Llanvylin.
North-Weſt Circuit.	Angleſea,	Beaumaris, Llanrickmead, and Holyhead.
	Carnarvon,	Bangor, Conway, and Crullilly.
	Merioneth,	Delgelhew, Bala, and Harley.

Circuits.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
South-East Circuit.	Radnor,	Radnor and Presteign.
	Brecon,	Brecknock.
	Glamorgan,	Llandaff and Cardiff.
South-West Circuit.	Pembroke,	St. David's, Haverford-west, Pembroke, Denbigh, and Milford-haven.
	Cardigan,	Cardigan and Aberist-with
	Caermarthen,	Caermarthen and Kid-welly.

In England there are,

40	Counties, which send up to parliament - -	80 Knights.
25	Cities, (Ely none, London four)	50 Citizens.
167	Boroughs, two each - -	334 Burgesses.
5	Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham-Ferrars, Monmouth) one each	5 Burgesses.
	Two Universities - - -	4 Representatives
8	Cinque Ports, (Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaford) two each. - -	16 Barons,

Wales.

12	Counties - - - - -	12 Knights.
	Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none) one each -	12 Burgesses.

Scotland.

	Shires - - - - - -	30 Knights.
	Boroughs - - - - - -	15 Burgesses.
	Total	558

Climate,

Climate, Air, Soil, and Productions.

S. Is the climate different in different parts of England?

M. The difference is very ſmall; but the ſituation has a very conſiderable effect with regard to heat and cold; though, indeed, neither of theſe are remarkable here. The warm vapours from the ſea prevent any extremity; and at the ſame time clothe the ſurface of the ground with that perpetual verdure to which all the kingdoms on the continent are ſtrangers. Hence alſo reſults that changeable ſtate of the weather ſo remarkable in England.

S. What are the general properties of the air in this country?

M. The air is often loaded with vapours from the ocean, and would produce fatal diſtempers, were not ſtorms and high winds ſo frequent in England; but theſe purify the air, and render it very friendly to nature. The moiſture of it, indeed, too frequently affects perſons of a lax habit, or tender nerves, in a diſtreſsful manner, eſpecially thoſe who have lived ſeveral years on the continent: but, upon the whole, the air of England is very healthy, eſpecially on dry gravelly ſoils.

S. What is the ſoil of England?

M. More various than even the counties into which it is divided; not only the clayey, the ſandy, the gravelly, the chalky, the ſtony, the rocky, the hazely, the loamy, and the marſhy ſoils, but compounds of all theſe, are frequent in moſt counties in the kingdom. In ſome places it is deep, in others ſhallow. But whatever be its nature and quality, the Engliſh huſbandman well knows how to convert it to its proper uſe. No country in the world has carried agriculture to a greater degree of perfection than the Engliſh; nor ever reaped greater advantages from the produce of the earth. This has rendered England ſuperior to every other part of the world for beautiful ſcenes. The intermixture of corn and meadow grounds, encloſures and plantations, noble ſeats, elegant houſes, cheerful villages, and well ſtocked farms, decorated with the moſt vivid colours of nature, form proſpects equal to the moſt luxuriant imagination.

S. What are the principal productions of England?

M. They are ſo many that a moderate volume would hardly be ſufficient to enumerate them properly. There is hardly a known plant or fruit of any conſequence in the world but may be found either in the fields or gardens of the Engliſh. Wheat, barley, rye, oats, peas, turneps, beans &c. are cultivated in very large quantities. Woad and madder for dying, with hemp and flax, are now produced in England. The counties of Kent, Surry, Eſſex, and Hampſhire, produce the largeſt quantities of hops, which now make a very conſiderable article of trade. Saffron is produced chiefly in Eſſex, Suffolk, and Cambridgeſhire, and eſteemed the beſt in the world. The Engliſh have been very ſucceſsful in cultivating the various kinds of graſſes for the food of cattle, as clover, trefoil, cinquefoil, ſainfoin, lucern, &c. The kitchen gardens are full of excellent greens, roots, and ſallads of various kinds, as artichokes, aſparagus, cauliflowers, cabbage, coleworts, brocoli, peaſe, beans, kidney beans, ſpinach, beets, lettuce, celery, endive, turneps, carrots, potatoes, muſhrooms, leeks, onions, ſhallots, &c. All ſorts of trees for fruit and timber flouriſh here in a very remarkable manner; and lately a great number has been planted, eſpecially Scotch firs, which are found to grow on the tops and bleak ſides of hills, which before produced nothing. The catalogue of fruits produced here is too extenſive to be recited.

Mountains and Foreſts.

S. Are there many mountains in England?

M. No. Wales, indeed, has a conſiderable number; but the other parts of the kingdom very few.

S. What are the principal mountains in England?

M. The Peak in Derbyſhire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Skiddaw, Wrynoſe, and Lauvellin, in Cumberland, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, the Wrekin in Shropſhire, and the Chiviot hills, on the borders of Scotland. But beſides theſe, there are many lofty hills, generally called Downs, ſcattered over the whole country, ſome of them forming long ridges or chains: as the Cheltern hills in Bucks, the Malvern hills in Worceſterſhire, the Cotſwold hills in Glouceſterſhire, and the ſouth downs in Suſſex.

S. What

S. What are the principal mountains in Wales?

M. That country abounds with very lofty hills, particularly North Wales: but the moſt remarkable are Snowdon, Plinlimmon, the Black mountain and Percelye hill.

S. How many foreſts are there in England?

M. Your queſtion is not eaſily anſwered. Soon after the Norman conqueſt England abounded with foreſts, there being no leſs than 69, but they are now reduced to a very few; the principal of which are Windſor foreſt, the New foreſt, the foreſt of Dean, and the foreſt of Sherwood. Theſe large tracts of land formerly abounded with oak, beech, maple, poplar, elm, cheſtnut, and walnut-trees, &c. But too little care has been taken to plant young trees as the old ones are cut down; and by this neglect the royal foreſts are very thin, and it is feared, will ſoon be deſtitute of timber proper for ſhip-building.

Mines, Metals, and Minerals.

S. What is the produce of the principal mines in England?

M. Tin, copper, lead, iron, coal, wadd, or black lead, mundic, lapis calaminaris, &c.

S. Are theſe mines found only in one particular part of the kingdom?

M. No; thoſe of tin only excepted, which are confined to Cornwall and Devonſhire.

S. Are the tin mines very valuable?

M. They are; and what is remarkable, they were known ſeveral centuries before the Chriſtian æra, and have been conſtantly worked ever ſince that remote period of time. The quantity of tin may be judged of, when you are informed that, upon a fair calculation, it has been found that the miners alone amount to 100,000 men. In a word, this metal has long afforded employment, and conſequently ſubſiſtence, to the poor, affluence to the lords of the ſoil, a conſiderable revenue to the prince of Wales, who is alſo duke of Cornwall; and an important article of trade to the Engliſh in almoſt every market of the known world.

S. Are the mines of other metals, &c. equal to this of tin?

M. No. They are of very great importance to this country; but being found in other parts of the world, they are not of the ſame national advantage. The mundic found in the Corniſh tin mines was of no value till the beginning of the preſent century, when Sir Gilbert Clark happily diſcovered a method of ſmelting it, and now it brings in 150,cool. annually. Copper, lead, iron, and coal, are found plentifully in many of the counties of England, but the wadd, or black lead, is confined to Cumberland, where this mineral may be dug up in any quantity. Fuller's earth is found in ſeveral of the counties of England, and is ſo abſolutely neceſſary for the woollen manufacture, that the exportation of it is prohibited. Marble, ſlate, freeſtone, and a great quantity of other uſeful ſubſtances, are found in the mines and quarries of England.

S. Are there any ſilver or gold mines in this kingdom?

M. No gold mines have been hitherto diſcovered: but ſmall quantities of that metal have been found in the Corniſh tin ore; and probably more might be diſcovered if the ores were more cautiouſly examined. There are ſilver mines in Devonſhire; but they have not been worked for many years, though they produced 700 pounds of fine ſilver in the year 1296.

Rivers and Lakes.

S. What are the principal rivers in England?

M. The Thames, the Medway, the Severn, the Trent, the Upper and Lower Ouſe, the Cam, the Tyne, the Tees, the Eden, the Upper and Lower Avon, the Derwent, the Ribble, the Merſey, and the Dee.

S. I ſhould be glad of a ſhort deſcription of theſe rivers.

M. The Thames riſes on the borders of Glouceſterſhire, and after receiving the waters of the Chume and Colne, it becomes navigable at Lechlade in Wiltſhire. Hence it paſſes by Oxford, Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Henley, Marlow, Windſor, Kingſton, &c. to London, receiving the tribute of a great number of ſmall rivers in its courſe. After paſſing by the capital, it diſcharges itſelf into the ſea, at the Nore, being navigable for the largeſt merchant ſhips to London Bridge, and is, perhaps, the nobleſt river in the world.

The

The Medway has its riſe near Tunbridge in Kent, and after flowing by Rocheſter and Chatham, falls into the ſea at Sheerneſs. It is navigable for ſhips of war of the firſt rate to Chatham, where part of the royal navy are laid up.

The Severn has its ſource at the foot of the Plinlimmon hill in Wales, becomes navigable at Welchpool, viſits Shrewſbury, Bridgnorth, Worceſter, Tewkeſbury, and Glouceſter, and falls into the Briſtol channel near Kingroad. It is the moſt rapid river in England, and in its courſe receives the waters of the Upper Avon, the Wye, and the Uſtre.

The ſource of the Trent is in the moorlands of Staffordſhire; its courſe, at firſt, is ſouth-eaſt to Newcaſtle-under-line; and thence north-eaſt along the confines of Derbyſhire. In its courſe it viſits Nottingham, receives the waters of the Ouſe, and ſeveral other rivers, changes its name to that of the Humber, and falls into the ſea a little below Hull.

The Upper Ouſe has its riſe in the northern parts of Yorkſhire, waſhes the walls of York, and, after receiving the waters of the Wharfe, the Are, the Calder, the Don, and the Derwent, falls into the Trent about twenty miles above Hull.

The Lower Ouſe riſes in Buckinghamſhire; directs its courſe to the eaſtward through the counties of Bedford, Huntingdon, and the iſle of Ely, and, after receiving the waters of the Cam, falls into the ſea at Lynn in Norfolk.

The Cam has its ſource in Hertfordſhire, directs its courſe to the north-eaſt, waters the town and univerſity of Cambridge, and falls into the Lower Ouſe in the iſle of Ely.

The Tine riſes in the north-weſt parts of Northumberland, directs its courſe to the eaſtward, waſhes the walls of Newcaſtle, and falls into the ſea at Tinmouth.

The ſource of the Tees is in the north-weſt part of Durham, which it divides from Yorkſhire, and falls into the ſea about ten miles below Stockton.

The Tweed riſes in the weſtern parts of Selkirkſhire, in Scotland, and falls into the German ocean at Berwick.

The Eden has its ſource in Weſtmoreland, directs its courſe to the northward, and falls into the Solway frith, a little below Carliſle.

The Lower Avon riſes in Wiltſhire, waters the cities of

Bath and Briſtol, and falls into the mouth of the Severn at Kingroad.

The riſe of the Derwent is in Cumberland, there it flows through the middle of that county, and falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below Cockermouth.

The Ribble riſes in Yorkſhire, flows acroſs the county of Lancaſter, and falls into the Iriſh ſea about ten miles below Preſton.

The ſource of the Merſey is in the northern parts of Cheſhire, and after forming the boundary between that county and Lancaſhire, falls into the Iriſh ſea at Liverpool.

The Dee riſes in the ſouthern parts of Denbighſhire in Wales, waſhes the walls of Cheſter, and falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below that city.

S. Are there any lakes in England?

M. None that are called by that name; but there are ſeveral meres, an appellation ſimilar to that of lake.

S. What are the principal lakes or meres in England?

M. Soham mere, Wittleſea mere, and Ramſey mere, all in the iſle of Ely; and Winander mere in Weſtmoreland.

Animals, Birds, and Fiſhes.

S. Are there any animals peculiar to England?

M. Very few. The Engliſh maſtiff and game cock are perhaps the only ones; for they are known to degenerate when carried to any other country, and loſe that native courage and fierceneſs for which alone they are valuable.

S. What are the principal animals known in England.

M. Oxen, horſes the beſt in the world, aſſes, mules, ſheep, and a great variety of other animals already ſufficiently known.

S. Is not the wool of the Engliſh ſheep a valuable article in commerce?

M. It is; and the original ſtaple commodity of England. Several computations have been made with regard to the quantity of wool produced in England; and by which it appears that there are annually ſhorn no leſs than twelve millions of fleeces, which at 2s each, amount to 1,200,000l. ſterling.

S. What are the birds common in England?

M. They

M. They are nearly the ſame as in other parts of Europe; namely, turkies, peacocks, common poultry, as cocks, pullets, capons, ſwans, ducks, pigeons, &c. Of the wild kind, we have buſtards, wild geeſe, bran-geeſe, wild-ducks, teel, wigeon, plovers, pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks, growſe, quail, ſnipes, wood-pigeons, landrails, hawks of various kinds, kites, buzzards, herons, bitterns, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws, jays, blackbirds, thruſhes, nightingales, goldfinches, bullfinches, chaffinches, linnets, larks, yellow-hammers, with a vaſt variety of other ſmall birds. The Corniſh cough, and the wheat-ear, are ſuppoſed to be peculiar to England; the former is found plentifully in Cornwall, and the latter, which is equal to the ortolan in the delicacy of its fleſh and flavour, in Suſſex.

S. Are there any fiſh peculiar to England?

M. One only; the char, found in ſome of the meres, or freſh water lakes, in Wales and Cumberland.

S. What are the principal ſpecies of fiſh known in England?

M. In the rivers, ponds, and lakes, are found plenty of ſalmon, trouts, eels, carp, pike, perch, ſmelts, tench, barble, gudgeons, roch, dace, bream, flounders, craw-fiſh, &c. The ſea-fiſh are cod, mackerel, haddock, whiting, mullets, baſe, herrings, pilchards, ſkaite, plaice, flounders, maids, ſoles, turbot, John Dory, red mullets, &c. Lobſters, crabs, prawns, ſhrimps, eſcallops, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muſcles.

S. Are the Engliſh fiſheries of great advantage?

M. They are; and might be ſtill more ſo, if carried on with proper ſpirit and perſeverance. The pilchard fiſhery on the coaſts of Devonſhire and Cornwall is very lucrative: and the herring fiſhery might be ſtill more ſo if conducted in a proper manner: but I ſhall have occaſion to conſider this ſubject more fully in the account I ſhall give you of Scotland.

Number of People, their Cuſtoms and Manners.

S. Can the number of people in England be accurately known?

M. Not eaſily. Nor can a computation be founded on any acknowledged principles; the great influx of ſtrangers,

who ſettle here, the vaſt numbers that annually paſs over to America and the Eaſt Indies, beſides the multitudes employed in the ſhipping, tend to render any calculation exceedingly defective. But though every method of this kind muſt be fallible, there is reaſon to believe that the number of inhabitants cannot be leſs than ſeven millions.

S. What are the cuſtoms and manners of the Engliſh?

M. The Engliſh in their perſons are regularly featured; of a proper ſize, and commonly of a fair and florid complexion; the women are allowed to be the moſt beautiful in Europe. The Engliſh are active, courageous, thoughtful, and pious; lovers of the liberal arts, and excel in the ſciences. Their love for their country is remarkable, and their charity unbounded. They feel all the pains which a fellow creature ſuffers, and have, at a prodigious expence, provided hoſpitals, where unhappy mortals, groaning under a load of infirmities, find a ſhelter from the ſtorm of affliction that ſurrounds them. They liſten to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deſerved or accidental, and generouſly contribute to their relief. But luxury and gaming have lately made alarming ſtrides among the people of this flouriſhing iſland, and ſeem, at preſent, even to threaten their deſtruction. Happy if they ſee their folly before it is too late, and prevent, by an alteration in their conduct, the unhappy fate that formerly attended the empires of Greece and Rome.

Religion.

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion in England?

M. It is a branch of the reformation, approaching nearer to that of the primitive Chriſtians, than any other. Its worſhip is a mean between ſuperſtition and indelicacy; and its practice equally void of bigotry and licentiouſneſs. The conſtitution of the Engliſh church is, and has always been, epiſcopal, except during the uſurpation of Oliver Cromwell, and its government by biſhops, whoſe benefices were, by the conqueror, converted into baronies, and, in conſequence of this, every biſhop has a ſeat and vote in the houſe of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold; but in many places their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity.

S. What is the principal character of the national church?

M. Moderation. It excludes no ſect of Chriſtians from the free exerciſe of their reſpective modes of religious worſhip. By acknowledging the king the head of the church, all religious perſecution is diſcouraged.

S. But has not this moderation encouraged a number of ſectaries to follow their own opinions, and diſturb the peace of ſociety?

M. It certainly has. But this is one of the excreſcencies of religious liberty, which every good man looks upon with affectionate concern.

S. Are theſe ſects numerous?

M. They are; though much leſs ſo than formerly, the Methodiſts only excepted.

S. What are the Methodiſts?

M. A religious ſect founded by the late Mr. George Whitefield, a divine of the church of England. But even this ſect, who are rigid Calviniſts with regard to predeſtination, and the doctrine of juſtification by faith without works, are divided among themſelves; ſome following the tenets of the original founder, and others thoſe of Mr. John Weſley, which are conſiderably different from thoſe of Mr. Whitefield.

Hiſtorical Events.

M. I have judged proper before I conſider the commerce and trade of England, and trace the progreſs of the arts and ſciences among us, to give a ſhort hiſtory of this kingdom, that you may be the better enabled to comprehend the different branches of trade carried on, and become acquainted with the various ſteps by which England has riſen to her preſent ſtate of power and opulence; by what accidents the rays of learning ſprung up from the dark regions of ignorance and ſuperſtitious bigotry, and by what noble efforts men of genius nouriſhed the flame, till its benign light illuminated every corner of the kingdom.

S. In what period of time ſhould the Hiſtory of England begin?

M. Authors vary in their ſentiments on this head. Some have begun their hiſtories with the landing of Brute, whom they

they ſuppoſe to have eſcaped from the ſiege of Troy, and to have taken upon him the government of this iſland. Very little credit is, however, to be given to ſuch improbabilities; nor have we any connected account of the affairs of England till the landing of Julius Cæſar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Chriſt.

S. Were the Britons at that time under any particular form of government?

M. In time of war they formed a political confederacy, of which Caſſibelan, whoſe territories lay in Hertfordſhire, and other adjacent counties, was appointed the chief; and under this government they continued for a conſiderable time.

S. What was their manner of life?

M. According to Cæſar they cultivated their lands, and ſowed corn, but their chief ſubſiſtence was animal food and milk. They were cloathed with ſkins, and the generality painted themſelves with woad, but others more curious delineated animals, and the ſigns of the zodiac on their bodies. Their marriages were very peculiar; eighteen or twenty men would marry as many women, and live promiſcuouſly together; but whatever number of children a woman had, they all belonged to her original huſband. They favoured a primogeniture in their ſucceſſion to royalty, except any inconveniency aroſe from it, in which caſe they ſat it aſide. Their warlike weapons were lances, darts, and ſwords, and they were inimitably dextrous in the management of their chariots. Women frequently led their armies to the field, and were recognized ſovereigns of their particular diſtricts.

S. Did Cæſar make an eaſy conqueſt of the Britons?

M. In his hiſtory which he wrote of his two expeditions into Britain, he pretended they were productive of ſuch vaſt advantages over the iſlanders, that they agreed to pay him tribute. But from contemporary authors it evidently appears, that his victories were incomplete, and that the only advantage he received from this invaſion was a more extenſive knowledge of the iſland. It is certain, that during the long reign of Auguſtus Cæſar the Britons might be looked on rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans.

S. Did they continue long in this ſtate?

M. Till

M. Till about forty-two years after the birth of Chriſt, when Claudius Cæſar undertook an expedition in perſon againſt Britain.

S. Was he ſucceſsful?

M. More ſo than his predeceſſor; but even his conqueſts were for ſome time imperfect; Caractacus, and the famous Boadicia, made noble efforts to preſerve themſelves and country from the ſlavery threatened by theſe bold invaders. The former, however, after a deſperate engagement, was taken priſoner and carried to Rome, where his noble behaviour excited the admiration of his enemies: the latter, being defeated, and treated in a manner which muſt reflect eternal diſgrace on the Roman name, ſhe diſdained to ſurvive the loſs of liberty.

S. Was this the laſt effort made by the Britons againſt the Romans?

M. Yes, except by the Caledonians and Picts; for the reſt, enervated by the pleaſures and arts of their conquerors, became fond of ſlavery; and when the Romans withdrew their legions from Britain to the continent, in order to repel the attacks of the barbarians upon the empire, the South Britains repeatedly urged their return. At laſt, when they found all their entreaties were in vain, Vortigern, one of their kings, invited the Saxons over from Germany to aſſiſt him in the defence of his country againſt the Picts and Scots, and by their means he obtained a complete victory. This alliance, however, proved fatal to the Britons; for the Saxons either had a real cauſe, or formed an imaginary pretence to quarrel with them, when partly by force, and partly by treachery, they made an entire conqueſt of their country, Wales and Cornwall excepted. To theſe places ſome Britons, who had yet a ſenſe of the exquiſite joys of liberty remaining, retired, while the reſt ſubmitted to be the ſervants of their inſolent conquerors.

Saxon Heptarchy.

S. What was the Saxon Heptarchy?

M. After the conqueſt of South-Britain the Saxons divided it into ſeven kingdoms, viz. Kent; South-Sex, or the South Saxons; Weſt-Sex, or the Weſt Saxons; Eaſt-Sex, or the Eaſt Saxons; Northumberland, Eaſt Anglia, and Mercia.

M. How

S. How long did this Heptarchy ſubſiſt?

M. Till the year 800, when Egbert, king of the Weſt Saxons, having ſubdued the reſt of the kingdoms, reigned ſole monarch of South Britain.

Race of Saxon Kings.

S. Who was Egbert deſcended from?

M. He was the ſon of Alcmund, a relation of Ina, king of the Weſt Saxons.

S. Did he perform any remarkable action after he acquired the entire government of South Britain?

M. He ordered that all the country, ſubject to him, ſhould from that time be called Englelond, or England, in the acts of ſtate.

S. Was the remaining part of his reign peaceable?

M. Toward the concluſion of it the Danes made a deſcent on England, and obtained a complete victory over the army he ſent againſt them; but not long after he drove them out of the kingdom, to which they never attempted to return while he lived.

S. Was his reign of any long continuance?

M. Authors are undetermined with regard to the time of his death; ſome ſay it happened in 836, while others ſay 837, and 838. Be that as it may, he reigned thirty-ſeven years and ſeven months, during which time he obtained the character of an excellent king, and an able warrior.

S. Who ſucceeded Egbert?

M. His ſon Ethelwulf.

S. Was his reign famous for any remarkable tranſaction?

M. He obtained ſeveral complete victories over the Danes, after which he made a pilgrimage to Rome, and rendered his kingdom tributary to the Holy See, by obliging each of his ſubjects to pay a ſhilling annually; a tax which was termed Rome ſcot, or Peter's-pence.

S. How long did this monarch reign?

M. Twenty years, and died in 857.

S. Did he leave any iſſue?

M. Four ſons, viz. Ethelbald, Ethelbert, Etheldred, and Alfred, who all ſucceeded each other on the throne of England.

S. Did

S. Did any remarkable tranſaction happen during this period?

M. Ethelbald reigned only two years. Ethelbert carried on a ſucceſsful war againſt the Danes for ſix years, when death put an end to his conqueſts. His ſucceſſor Ethelred was not ſo fortunate, for in his reign, though it laſted only ſix years, the Danes obtained large poſſeſſions in England, which rendered them very formidable to Alfred.

S. When did Alfred aſcend the throne?

M. In the year 872.

S. What character do hiſtorians give of this prince?

M. They all agree that no monarch ever poſſeſſed more accompliſhments. He was brave, devout, munificent, learned, liberal; and his uncommon virtues have juſtly acquired him the expreſſive epithet of *Great*.

S. Was he a warrior?

M. He is ſaid to have fought fifty-ſix pitched battles againſt the Danes, with various ſucceſs; but when defeated, he always found reſources which rendered him as terrible to his enemies as if he had been the conqueror.

S. Did the Danes obtain any ſignal advantage over him?

M. Yes; inſomuch that he was even obliged to live for ſome time in the diſguiſe of a cow-herd.

S. How did he extricate himſelf from this ſituation?

M. By keeping up a private correſpondence with his friends, whom he was at laſt enabled to collect together. At the head of this little army he routed the Danes, recovered his kingdom, and obliged the barbarians to ſwear obedience to his government.

S. How did Alfred employ the remaining part of his reign?

M. In raiſing a maritime power in England, by which he ſecured her coaſts from future invaſions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been deſtroyed by the Danes; and about the year 895, founded the univerſity of Oxford. He divided his kingdom into counties hundreds, and tythings. He ordered ſtone and brick ſhould be uſed in all churches and public buildings; gave great encouragement to commerce, navigation, and learning of every kind.

S. How long did this great man reign?

M. Twenty-eight years; and died in the year 900.

S. Did

S. Did the Saxon government continue long after the death of Alfred?

M. Only 27 years.

S. What were the names of the Saxon kings from the death of Alfred to that period?

M. Edward, commonly called the *Elder*, and who, according to ſome authors, founded the univerſity of Cambridge. Athelſtan, natural ſon to Edward. Edmund, ſurnamed the *Pious*, the eldeſt and legitimate ſon of Edward. Edred, ſecond ſon to Edward. Edwy, nephew to Edred. Edgar, brother to Edwy. Edward, ſon to Edgar, and commonly called the *Martyr*. Ethelred, brother-in-law to Edward; and Edmund, ſurnamed *Ironſide*.

S. Were the Danes at peace with England during the reigns of theſe monarchs?

M. No; they continued their inroads with ſuch ſucceſs, that when Edmund Ironſide came to the crown, he found the greateſt part of his kingdom in the poſſeſſion of Canute, king of Denmark.

S. Did he endeavour to diſpoſſeſs the uſurper.

M. Yes; and gained three complete victories over him; but neglecting to make his advantage of theſe ſucceſſes, Canute defeated him in his turn. At laſt theſe two monarchs mutually agreed to divide the kingdom between them.

S. How long did this diviſion laſt?

M. But a few days; for Edric, brother-in-law to Edmund, cauſed him to be aſſaſſinated, thinking by this horrid cruelty to ingratiate himſelf with Canute; but he was fatally miſtaken: the Dane ſtruck with the barbarity of the action, ironically promiſed the fratricide to exalt him above all the other princes of the kingdom. Accordingly he no ſooner found himſelf ſeated on the throne of England, than he commanded his head to be ſtruck off, and placed on the top of the higheſt gate in London.

Race of Daniſh Kings.

S. Who was the firſt Daniſh king of England?

M. Some authors contend for Sweyn; but the ſhortneſs of his reign, and the uncertainty of his ever being crowned, induce moſt hiſtorians to give Canute that title.

S. Was

S. Was the acceſſion of this monarch attended with any particular advantages to England?

M. It put an end to the war which had continued above two hundred years, and wherein the two nations had loſt an infinite number of men.

S. Did Canute render himſelf beloved by his new ſubjects?

M. Yes; for in preference to his countrymen he raiſed them to the higheſt poſts, and even entruſted them with the command of his armies. He cauſed the churches and abbeys to be rebuilt; and remitted the taxes which had been levied by former monarchs. In this manner he governed England nineteen years.

S. When did he die?

M. On the 12th of November, 1036.

S. Did he leave any iſſue?

M. Three ſons; two of whom ſucceeded him in the throne of England, viz. Harold I. or Hareſoot; and Canute II. or Hardicanute. But theſe princes, ſo far from imitating the virtues of their father, abandoned themſelves to every exceſs, and rendered the government of the Danes ſo odious to the Engliſh, that, on the death of Hardicanute, which happened in the year 1041, the principal nobility of the kingdom agreed in enacting a law, whereby it was declared unlawful to beſtow the crown upon any perſon of that nation; and that the man who dared to propoſe it, ſhould be eſteemed an enemy to his country, a traitor to the ſtate, and be declared guilty of high treaſon.

The Saxon Line reſtored.

S. Who did the Engliſh place upon the throne after the death of Hardicanute?

M. Edward, commonly called the *Confeſſor*, ſon to Ethelred, and in him the Saxon line was again reſtored.

S. What were the principal tranſactions of his reign?

M. He obtained a victory over the Danes, who had made a deſcent at Sandwich; and either in perſon, or by his generals, defeated the Scots, and every other enemy who dared to oppoſe him. He likewiſe collected the laws made by his predeceſſors, and, having digeſted them into one

one code, ordered it to be obſerved as *the common law of England.* He erected the abbey at Weſtminſter, and endowed it with very ample revenues. He alſo built the church, dedicated to St. Margaret; founded the college of St. Mary Ottery in Devonſhire, and removed the biſhop's ſee from Credington to Exeter.

S. How long did he reign?

M. Twenty-four years, and died on the 5th of January, 1065.

S. By whom was he ſucceeded?

M. By Harold, ſon to Godwin, earl of Kent.

S. What right had he to the crown?

M. He pretended it was deviſed to him by Edward; but William duke of Normandy, under the ſame pretence, invaded the kingdom, and having obtained a victory over Harold, who was ſlain in the engagement, he was proclaimed king of England.

Norman Kings.

S. What was William's behaviour to the Engliſh?

M. At firſt it was remarkably humane; but finding they murmured at his beſtowing Engliſh eſtates on his Norman followers, and that they were continually forming plots againſt him in favor of Edgar Atheling the undoubted heir to the crown, he treated them with the moſt wanton cruelty, cutting off the hands and feet of ſeveral thouſands; after which he deſtroyed the north of England with fire and ſword; beſtowed eſtates on his Normans in ſuch an unbounded manner, that at his death there was not an Engliſhman poſſeſſed of an eſtate in his own right. As far as lay in his power he deprived them of their privileges, aboliſhed their laws, and ſubſtituted thoſe of Normandy in their room; deprived them of all places of truſt and profit, and impoſed the tenure of knights ſervice upon all lands held of the crown. At the ſame time he cauſed a general ſurvey of all the lands in England to be made, and took an account of all the villains or ſlaves upon each eſtate, together with the live ſtock; recording all theſe particulars in what he called his doomſday-book. In a word he governed England in every reſpect as a conquered country.

S. Did

S. Did his reign end happily? In what manner did he die?

M. No; for being exaſperated with Philip, king of France, for encouraging Robert, his eldeſt ſon, who had rebelled againſt him, he invaded France at the head of a powerful army, took Mantes, and ſet it on fire: but going too near the flames, the violence of the heat, added to that of the weather, threw him into a fever, and he died at Roan on the 9th of September, 1087, being in the ſixty firſt year of his age, and the twenty-firſt of his reign.

S. Who was his ſucceſſor?

M. The right to the crown was diſputed between his ſons Robert and William, commonly called *Rufus*, from his having red hair, but it was determined in favour of the latter.

S. Was his reign peaceable?

M. No; on the contrary he was engaged in continual wars, either with his rebellious ſubjects or his brother Robert; but the latter, having engaged in a cruſade to the Holy Land, he mortgaged the dukedom of Normandy to William for ten thouſand marks of ſilver.

S. Did this prince raiſe any public buildings?

M. He erected a new wall round the tower of London, and built Weſtminſter Hall.

S. Was not this monarch ſlain by one of his attendants?

M. Yes; by Sir Walter Tyrrel, who ſhot him with an arrow, as they were hunting in New Foreſt. According to ſome authors this accident was the mere effect of chance, while others aſſert it was done by deſign.

S. How long did he reign?

M. Something above 12 years; this cataſtrophe happening in the year 1100, being the 13th year of his reign, and the 44th of his age.

S. Did Robert ſucceed him?

M. No; for though it was his undoubted right, Henry, ſurnamed Beau-Clerc, his younger brother, taking advantage of Robert's abſence. then on his return from the Holy Land, cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed king of England.

S. Did Robert aſſert his right?

M. He made a deſcent at Portſmouth, but through the mediation of friends, a peace was concluded between the two brothers; in which it was agreed, that Robert ſhould reſign

reſign all pretenſions to the crown, on condition that Henry ſhould pay him a yearly penſion of three thouſand marks of ſilver.

S. Did this peace continue any length of time?

M. No; Robert was ſoon after prevailed upon by the arts of Henry to reſign his penſion: but finding himſelf diſtreſſed for money, he complained that his good-nature had been abuſed, and imprudently uſed many threatening expreſſions againſt Henry, who immediately led a conſiderable army againſt his brother, and deprived him at once both of his duchy of Normandy and his liberty.

S. In what manner did he treat his brother Robert?

M. He kept him cloſe priſoner in Cardiff caſtle, in Wales, for the remainder of his life, which was twenty-ſix years.

S. Was Henry engaged in any other wars?

M. Yes; againſt France and Wales, in both which he was ſucceſsful.

S. Did he grant the Engliſh any particular privileges?

M. He permitted them the uſe of fire and candle in the night, which had been forbid them by his father: but what was of far greater conſequence, he conſented to reſtore the laws of Edward the *Confeſſor*, whereby the barons, who were all Normans, were enabled to hold their eſtates on the ſame advantageous terms the Saxons had enjoyed them.

S. Where did Henry die?

M. At Brai, near Roan, in the year 1135, after a reign of thirty-five years.

S. Whom did he name for his ſucceſſor?

M. His daughter Maud, or Matilda, who was firſt married to the emperor Henry IV. and afterwards to Jeffery Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. But ſhe being in France at the time of her father's death, the crown was uſurped by Stephen, earl of Blois.

S. What pretenſions had Stephen to the crown of England?

M. He was ſon to Adela, daughter of William the Conqueror.

S. Was he left in peaceable poſſeſſion of the kingdom?

M. No; by the aſſiſtance of David, king of Scotland, and Robert, earl of Glouceſter, Maud defeated and took him priſoner.

S. Did

S. Did he remain long in confinement?

M. Till the year 1141, when he was exchanged for the earl of Glouceſter, who had been taken priſoner by Stephen's queen.

S. What followed this event?

M. The contending parties agreed, that Stephen ſhould enjoy the crown during his life, after which it ſhould devolve on Henry, ſon to the empreſs Maud. Stephen died ſoon after in the nineteenth year of his reign, and fiftieth of his age.

S. Who was Henry II. deſcended from?

M. He was ſon to Jeffery, earl of Anjou, Tourain, and Maine, and of the empreſs Maud, who has been already mentioned.

S. What character have hiſtorians given us of this monarch?

M. That of the greateſt prince of his time. He was brave, generous, magnificent, clement, juſt, and prudent. But as a ſhade to ſo many virtues, he was ambitious, incontinent, violent, and poſſeſſed an unbounded deſire of extending his dominions.

S. What were the principal tranſactions of his reign?

M. On his aſcending the throne he found the Engliſh boroughs had been much improved by the privileges they enjoyed from his predeceſſors. He therefore reſolved to follow their example, and accordingly paſſed a law, by which every bond-man, or ſervant, who reſided in any borough a year and a day, acquired his freedom. By this means the crown made a vaſt acceſſion of power, and he was enabled to reduce the nobility, who at this time had arrived to an inſupportable height of inſolence. He reſumed the grants of the crown lands made by Stephen; and demoliſhed all the fortreſſes in the kingdom belonging to private perſons, leaving ſuch only as he thought neceſſary for the defence of his own dominions, and theſe he garriſoned with his own ſoldiers.

S. Was he engaged in any wars?

M. Yes; with France, Ireland, and Scotland, which were attended with various ſucceſs. His greateſt misfortunes, however, aroſe from the rebellion of his own ſons, who, having joined the king of France, defeated their father. This had ſuch an effect on his ſpirits, that he died

of grief at Chinou in France, in 1189, in the fifty-ſixth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign.

S. Did not Thomas Becket flouriſh in the reign of Henry II.

M. Yes; and cauſed that monarch an infinite deal of trouble. This extraordinary perſon was the ſon of a tradeſman in London, who bred him up to the law. Henry firſt appointed him lord high chancellor, and then archbiſhop of Canterbury; after which his inſolence became inſupportable to the king, who cauſed him to be arraigned and convicted of public peculation. Thomas fled to France, where the Pope and the French king eſpouſed his quarrel. The former employed the thunder of the Vatican; he excommunicated all the Engliſh clergy who had adhered to the king, and abſolved his ſubjects from the oath of allegiance. This reduced him to ſuch a dilemma, that he was obliged to treat with Becket, who, in 1170, returned to London in triumph. The pride of the prieſt now roſe to ſuch a pitch of inſolence, that Henry complained publickly of his having no one to revenge his cauſe on the haughty prelate. This being heard by four of his knights, they flew to Canterbury, and beat out Becket's brains before the altar, as he was aſſiſting at veſpers. The Pope immediately excommunicated Henry, who was glad to appeaſe his holineſs, and the reſentment of the public, by going in pilgrimage to Becket's tomb, where he ſubmitted himſelf to be ſcourged by the prior and his monks.

S. Who ſucceeded Henry II.

M. His ſon Richard, ſurnamed Cœur de Lion, from his exceſſive bravery, which was the only virtue he could boaſt.

S. What ſignal actions did he perform?

M. He engaged in a cruſade to the Holy Land, where he entirely defeated the army of Saladine, and killed above forty thouſand of his forces. He conquered the iſland of Cyprus, and took the city of Acon in Paleſtine; repaired the fortifications of Aſcalon, Joppa, and Cæſarea, which Saladine had demoliſhed and abandoned, made a truce for three years with that celebrated caliph, and ſet out for England; but was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by Leopald, duke of Auſtria. That prince, after keeping him priſoner for ſome time, delivered him to the Emperor Henry VI.

his

his avowed enemy. At laſt he obtained his liberty on paying an enormous ſum for his ranſom. On his return to England, he found, that during his abſence his brother John had uſurped the throne by the aſſiſtance of the French king, who, at the ſame time, attacked Richard's dominions in France. This obliged the king to paſs over to the continent, where he carried on a war for five years, and at length laid ſiege to Chaluz in Limouſin. at which place he was mortally wounded by an arrow. This event happened on the ſixth of April, 1199, in the forty-third year of his age, and the tenth of his reign. Richard was the firſt king of England who took three lions paſſant for his arms: and during his reign the city of London was divided into different corporations, or, as they are now termed, companies.

S. Who ſucceeded Richard?

M. His brother John.

S. What figure does this prince make in hiſtory?

M. A very indifferent one: he is ſuppoſed to have aſſaſſinated Arthur, ſon to his brother Geoffry, the undoubted heir to the crown. For this attrocious act he was ſummoned by Philip, king of France, to appear before the peers of that kingdom, and ſhew cauſe for this proceeding. He refuſed to obey the ſummons, and thereby forfeited the duchy of Normandy.

S. Was John deficient in courage?

M. In his wars with the French, Scotch, and Iriſh, he gave many proofs of perſonal valour; but at laſt he became ſo apprehenſive of an invaſion, that he rendered himſelf tributary to the court of Rome; and, in preſence of all his peers, took the crown from his head and laid it at the feet of Pandolph, the Pope's legate, who kept it five days; and, notwithſtanding the barons took up arms in his defence, he repeated his ſhameful ſubmiſſions; till, after experiencing various fortunes of war, his affairs were brought to ſo low an ebb, that his barons obliged him in 1215 to ſign two charters; the firſt called the charter of liberties, or magna charta, and the ſecond the charter of the foreſts; and theſe laid the foundations of Engliſh liberty.

S. Was the remainder of his reign peaceable?

M. No; he endeavoured to revenge himſelf on his barons, who ſent a deputation to Lewis, ſon to the king of France, promiſing him the crown of England if he would come to their aſſiſtance. He embraced the offer, landed at Sandwich in 1216, and ſoon made himſelf maſter of the greateſt part of England. John was ſo much affected by this misfortune, that he died of grief on the eighth of October following, in the fifty-ſecond year of his age, and eighteenth of his reign.

S. Who ſucceeded him on the throne?

M. His ſon Henry III. then only in the tenth year of his age.

S. Who was appointed regent?

M. The earl of Pembroke, who engaged the lords that had adhered to John, to recognize Henry for their ſovereign. The Pope joined the young king's party; the French were defeated, and Lewis obliged to renounce all claim to the crown of England.

S. Was Henry's reign happy?

M. Quite otherwiſe; for the earl of Pembroke dying in 1219, the biſhop of Wincheſter was choſen regent; but that prelate was not equal to the taſk. In the mean time, the Pope, who was in reality king of England ſent no leſs than three hundred of his clergy to take poſſeſſion of the richeſt benefices, and load the people with taxes. Henry, inſtead of exerting himſelf in defence of his ſubjects, added to their oppreſſion by entering into an alliance with Eleanor, daughter to the count of Provence; a needy prince whoſe poor relations were promoted to the beſt eſtates and places in England. At length the king was prevailed upon to violate the great charter, upon which an aſſociation of the barons was immediately formed againſt him and his government. A civil war was the conſequence; and Henry with his two ſons were defeated, and taken priſoners at the battle of Lewes, by Stephen Montfort, general of the aſſociation. Prince Edward, however, taking advantage of a miſunderſtanding, which ſoon after happened between Montford and the earl of Glouceſter, a nobleman of great authority, obtained his liberty, and aſſembled a number of his father's ſubjects, now grown weary of the tyranny of the barons: he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated, and killed the famous Montfort.

S. Did

S. Did not a remarkable change in the parliament happen during this reign?

M. Yes; the greater barons, inſtead of having the leſſer ſummoned by the ſheriff of each county, ſent their precepts to the ſheriffs to cauſe two knights in every ſhire to be choſen; and one or two burgeſſes for each burgh, to repreſent the body of the people, reſiding in thoſe counties and burghs; a method that has been ever ſince obſerved.

S. In what year did Henry die?

M. In 1272, being the ſixty-ſixth of his age, and the fifty-ſeventh of his reign. He was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon, Edward I. who was returning from Paleſtine at the time of his father's death.

S. What character have we of this prince?

M. He was brave and politic, well acquainted with the laws, intereſts and conſtitution of his kingdom. It was this monarch who paſſed the famous mortmain act, whereby all perſons were reſtrained from giving, by will or otherwiſe, their eſtates to religious purpoſes, and other ſocieties that never die, without a licence from the crown. He ſettled the privileges of the cinque-ports; and gave great encouragement to foreigners who traded with England. He alſo regulated the forms of parliament; expelled the Jews out of the kingdom, after ſeizing their eſtates, and endeavoured to abridge the power of the barons and nobility; but ſoon found they were too powerful.

S. What wars was Edward engaged in?

M. Several; againſt France, Scotland and Wales. In the firſt he was very unſucceſsful, but fortunate in the latter; for he entirely ſubdued the Welſh, and leſt that people ſhould be again tempted to revolt, he created his ſon prince of Wales; a title which has belonged to the eldeſt ſons of our monarchs ever ſince. But the reduction of Scotland ſeems to have been Edward's principal object, which, however, he was never able to accompliſh. It is uncertain how far he might have ſucceeded had he lived ſome time longer; for he had aſſembled a very powerful army at Carliſle, when he was ſeized with an illneſs of which he died on the ſeventh of July, 1307. This monarch was at that time ſixty-eight years of age, and had ſwayed the Engliſh ſceptre almoſt thirty-five years.

S. Who ſucceeded him?

M. His only ſon Edward II. whoſe reign was one continued ſcene of anxiety and misfortunes, chiefly owing to the unbounded confidence he had repoſed in his favourites, of whom he had ſeveral, the principal were Piers Gaveſton, who was afterwards beheaded, and Hugh Spenſer, who, having rendered himſelf obnoxious to the barons, he, together with his father, was baniſhed from the kingdom; but Edward's queen, a turbulent and ambitious woman, perſuaded her huſband to recal the exiles. This rouſed the fury of the barons; they again flew to arms, but were entirely defeated by the royal army. In conſequence of this victory Edward regained the exerciſe of all his prerogatives.

S. Did this put a period to the deſtructive war?

M. No; the queen, who was at this time engaged in a criminal intercourſe with Roger Mortimer, one of the rebel lords, became diguſted with the Spenſers, and, going over to France with her lover, ſhe formed a ſtrong party in England againſt the king, and returned at the head of a few regiments of French troops. On her landing, ſhe was joined by the male contents, and ſoon gave laws to the kingdom. The two Spenſers were executed, and Edward confined to Kenelworth caſtle, where he was obliged to abdicate the crown in favour of his ſon Edward III. at this time only fifteen years of age.

S. Did this unfortunate monarch ever obtain his liberty?

M. No; his vile queen, and Mortimer, cauſed him to be removed from Kenelworth to Berkley caſtle, where, in the year 1327, he was murdered in a moſt ſhocking manner by his keepers, Sir Thomas Gourney, and Sir John Maltravers.

S. Did not Edward III. revenge his father's death?

M. Yes; Gourney died by the hands of the executioner; Maltravers periſhed for want; Mortimer was hanged at Tyburn; and the infamous queen confined for life to the caſtle of Riſing.

S. Was this monarch ſucceſsful in his wars?

M. He invaded France, and carried his victorious arms even to the gates of Paris: in Scotland he was equally victorious. At the famous battle of Creſſy, above 100,000 French were defeated; this noble victory was attributed to the

the valour of the prince of Wales, generally known in hiſtory by the appellation of Edward the Black Prince, at this time only ſixteen years old. Edward's army conſiſted of no more than 30,000 men, of whom he loſt only three knights, one eſquire, and about fifty private men. But this was not the only time when the Black Prince was fortunate; he defeated the French again at Poictiers, and took their king, together with his ſon Philip, priſoners. In the mean time, Philippa, queen of Edward, whom he had left regent of England during his abſence, made David, king of Scotland, priſoner; ſo that at his return Edward had the glory of ſeeing two crowned heads captives at London.

S. Was the latter part of Edward's reign as proſperous as the beginning?

M. No; that great man ſuffered himſelf to be governed in his old age by his miſtreſs, Alice Piers, which ſunk him in the eſteem of his ſubjects: after this he retired to his palace at Sheen in Surry, where he was ſeized with the St. Anthony's-fire, which put a period to his life on the twenty-firſt of June, 1377, in the ſixty-fifth year of his age, and the fifty-firſt of his reign.

S. Was he ſucceeded by the Black Prince?

M. No; unfortunately for the kingdom, that youthful warrior, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinſtated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was ſeized with a conſumptive diſorder, of which he died in 1372.

S. Who aſcended the throne of England, on the death of Edward?

M. Richard II. eldeſt ſon to the Black Prince, then eleven years of age. During his minority the kingdom was governed by the dukes of Lancaſter, York, and Glouceſter, all uncles to the young monarch. But finding Richard delivered himſelf up to the councils of Sir Michael de la Pole, Robert de Vere, and judge Treſilian, they took up arms againſt him, and obliged him to give up all his favourites, who were attainted.

S. Did this reſtore peace to the kingdom?

M. No; a quarrel having happened between the duke of Hereford, ſon to the duke of Lancaſter, and the duke of Norfolk, the king baniſhed them both, with particular

marks of injuſtice to the former. This proceeding, added to the heavy taxes wherewith he loaded the people, rendered Richard very obnoxious; and he being obliged to repair to Ireland, in order to quell a rebellion which had been raiſed there; a ſtrong party, during his abſence was formed in England, who offered the duke of Hereford, then duke of Lancaſter, by the death of his father, the crown. Accordingly, that nobleman landed in England, and ſoon found himſelf at the head of a powerful army of Engliſhmen. The news of this inſurrection no ſooner reached Richard, than he haſtened back; but, being abandoned by his troops, he was taken priſoner and carried to London, where, upon a formal charge of miſ-conduct, he was depoſed in full parliament, and, not long after, murdered by order of the duke of Lancaſter, in the thirty-third year of his age.

The Line of Lancaſter.

S. Who was the father of Henry duke of Lancaſter?

M. John of Gaunt, third ſon of Edward III. He aſcended the throne of England on the 30th of September, 1399.

S. Did he meet with no oppoſition?

M. At firſt ſome conſpiracies were formed againſt him; but, by his activity, they were ſoon ſuppreſſed. He then endeavoured to reduce the too great power of the nobility, upon which a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his ſon the famous earl Piercy, commonly called Hotſpur; but this alſo ended in the defeat of the rebels. Equal ſucceſs attended the arms of Henry againſt the Welſh, who roſe under the conduct of Owen Glendower.

S. How long did he reign?

M. Fourteen years; and died on the twentieth of March 1413, aged forty-ſix.

S. Who ſucceeded Henry of Lancaſter?

M. His eldeſt ſon Henry V. whoſe diſſolute conduct while prince of Wales afforded a very gloomy proſpect to his ſubjects; but on his acceſſion to the throne, a ſudden reformation in his manners took place, and thoſe eminent qualities which he poſſeſſed, ſhone forth with double luſtre.

He

He was a ſound politician, and an experienced ſoldier. His elevated genius was ever forming glorious projects, in the execution of which ſucceſs generally attended him. The followers of the famous Wickliff, commonly called Lollards, were very numerous at the beginning of his reign; and choſe Sir John Oldcaſtle, lord Cobham, for their leader: upon which Henry, who hated this ſect, thought proper to diſperſe them, and accordingly cauſed Sir John to be executed.

S. Did not Henry invade France?

M. Yes; taking advantage of the diſtracted ſtate of that kingdom, he landed his army and marched againſt Harfleur, which being reduced, he defeated the enemy, at Agincourt, where the flower of their nobility were ſlain. After ſeveral other victories, equally glorious, he obliged the queen of France, her huſband Charles VI. being inſane, to give him her daughter Catherine in marriage; to declare him regent of France during her huſband's life, and to diſinherit the dauphin, and declare Henry and his iſſue ſucceſſors to the French monarchy. This being complied with, he made a triumphant entry into Paris, and received the fealty of the French nobility. In the mean time the proſcribed dauphin having applied to the Scots for aſſiſtance, they furniſhed him with vaſt ſupplies, which obliged Henry to return to England in order to levy a force large enough to oppoſe him and his auxiliaries; and in all probability would have entirely ſubdued the power of France, had not death put a period to his deſigns. This event happened on the thirty-firſt of Auguſt 1422, in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth of his reign. He was ſucceeded by his only ſon Henry VI. ſurnamed of Windſor, an infant of nine months old.

S. Was he acknowledged king of France?

M. Yes; by above half that kingdom; but not till after the death of Charles VI.

S. Who was appointed to the regency during the minority of Henry?

M. John duke of Bedford, under the title of protector; but affairs requiring his preſence in France, his brother Humphrey, duke of Glouceſter, ſupplied his place in England.

S. With what ſucceſs was the war carried on in France?

M. Charles VII. who had aſcended that throne on the death of his father, exerted his utmoſt endeavours to maintain his right, but for ſome time without ſucceſs; for the Engliſh diſpoſſeſſed him of all his ſtrong places, Orleans excepted.

S. Was not the reduction of that place attempted?

M. The duke of Bedford laid ſiege to it, and had nearly gained the town, when it was relieved by Joan d'Arc, generally called the maid of Orleans.

S. Who was this heroine?

M. A woman of the loweſt extraction. She pretended to have received a divine order to raiſe the ſiege of Orleans; and the French clergy openly aſſerted that ſhe had a call from heaven. Charles immediately gave her a ſtrong body of forces, with which ſhe entirely defeated the Engliſh, who were ſeized with a ſudden panic on ſuppoſing they were to fight againſt all the powers of darkneſs, and obliged them to raiſe the ſiege with diſgrace. She then diſpoſſeſſed them of ſeveral cities, and carried Charles to Rheims, where ſhe placed the crown on his head.

S. What became of this ſurprizing woman?

M. After ſeveral other exploits, equally glorious to herſelf and country, ſhe was taken priſoner by the Engliſh, who burnt her as a witch at Roan, on the thirtieth of May 1431.

S. Did her death cauſe any favourable alteration for the Engliſh?

M. No; the death of the duke of Bedford, which happened ſoon after that of Joan, and the reconciliation of the duke of Burgundy, who had hitherto been our firm ally, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire deſtruction of the Engliſh intereſt in France. In 1450 all Normandy was conquered; and the next year the ſame fate attended Guienne, notwithſtanding the brave efforts of Talbot earl of Shrewſbury.

S. How did Henry behave during this ſeries of ill ſucceſs?

M. His youth and inexperience rendered him incapable of acting properly, and his miniſters were too much divided among themſelves to be of any aſſiſtance to their king. The good duke of Glouceſter was deprived of all authority by the queen, who was daughter to the titular king of Sicily.

This

This princeſs poſſeſſed a high ſpirit, together with a bravery and intrepidity which would reflect honour on the greateſt generals. Her extreme beauty gained her an abſolute aſcendancy over Henry, and having taken the adminiſtration of affairs into her own hands, ſhe confined the duke of Glouceſter, and made the duke of Suffolk prime miniſter; but he being ſoon after baniſhed the kingdom, ſhe cauſed the duke of Somerſet, a man odious to the nation, to ſucceed him; and Richard, duke of York, who had an undoubted right to the crown, taking advantage of the general diſcontent, raiſed an army, with which he defeated the queen in three pitched battles; but in December 1460, ſhe gained a complete victory over him at Wakefield, where he, together with his ſecond ſon, were ſlain.

S. Did this put an end to the civil war?

M. Reſolved to revenge the death of his father, Edward, earl of March, collected the remains of the routed army, and being joined by the earl of Warwick with new levies, they gave the queen a total defeat at Taunton.

S. What was the conſequence of this victory?

M. Queen Margaret, accompanied by Henry, fled to Scotland, where they were generouſly received by Mary of Gueldres. Edward, earl of March, was proclaimed king of England, and crowned in London on the twenty-ninth of June 1461.

Houſe of York.

S. Did Edward ſit peaceably on the throne?

M. No; queen Margaret having obtained troops both from France and Scotland, entered Northumberland, where her army was defeated, Henry taken priſoner, and ſhe, with the prince of Wales, fled to France. Edward might now, in all probability, have continued in the quiet poſſeſſion of the crown, had it not been for his own ill conduct: but by his marriage with Elizabeth, the widow of Sir John Grey, he diſobliged the great earl of Warwick ſo much, that from his firm adherent, he became his avowed enemy; and immediately concerted meaſures with Edward's brother, the duke of Clarence, and other perſons of diſtinction, for dethroning the king. Accordingly they raiſed an army, defeated Edward, and made him priſoner.

But he having bribed his guards, found means to eſcape, and in his turn gained a complete victory over Warwick, and obliged him to fly into France, where he remained till Edward's exceſſes gave him a fair opportunity of re-inſtating Henry on the throne, which was accompliſhed on the 14th of October, 1470.

S. What became of Edward?

M. He eſcaped to Holland, collected a body of two thouſand men, and in 1471 made a deſcent into England; where he levied a powerful army. Warwick came to an engagement with him at Barnet, and in this battle the brave earl loſt his life. Henry was once more depoſed and impriſoned; and Edward re aſcended the throne. A few days after he defeated an army of Lancaſtrians, and took queen Margaret, with her ſon, the prince of Wales, priſoners. The latter, together with his father, were ſacrificed to the ſafety of Edward; and the queen was kept cloſe priſoner in the Tower, till ranſomed by the king of France.

S. What other uſe did Edward make of his power?

M. He put the adherents of Henry to death wherever he found them, nor did he ſpare his own brother, the duke of Clarence, whom he cauſed to be drowned in a butt of Malmſey: but the chief object of his vengeance was Henry, duke of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII. That nobleman, however, by reſiding in France, happily eſcaped his fury.

S. Did Edward engage in any foreign wars?

M. He obliged James III. king of Scotland, to ſurrender up Berwick, which had been ceded to him by queen Margaret; and then, in order to amuſe his ſubjects, he entered France with a ſtrong body of forces; but, without doing one thing worthy of being recorded, he conſented to a peace. After his return to England, he employed himſelf in reſtoring that good order and regularity in his kingdom which ſubſiſted before the breaking out of the civil wars; but his irregularities occaſioned his death in 1483, in the 42d year of his age, and the 23d of his reign.

S. By whom was Edward IV. ſucceeded?

M. By his eldeſt ſon, Edward V. but his reign was of very ſhort duration; for his uncle, Richard duke of Glouceſter, taking advantage of the diſguſt which the queen's unbounded favours to her own relations, during her huſband's life, had raiſed among the chief part of the nobility, found means to baſtardize her iſſue by act of parliament, under

under the ſlight pretences of a pre-contract between Edward IV. and another lady. He was declared guardian of the kingdom, and having firſt ſacrificed all the people of diſtinction whom he ſuppoſed to be well affected to the late king's family, he accepted, with ſeeming reluctance, the crown of England, which was offered him by the citizens of London.

S. What became of the young princes?

M. It is uncertain: ſome authors affirm they were murdered in the Tower by order of their uncle: while others alledge that they were privately ſent out of the kingdom; that the eldeſt died in exile, but that the younger ſurvived, and was afterwards well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck.

S. Did Richard long enjoy the fruits of his villainy?

M. No: the people ſuppoſing him the murderer of his nephews, were ſtrongly prepoſſeſſed againſt him: and the duke of Buckingham, who had been at the head of Richard's party, finding himſelf neglected, took advantage of the general diſcontent, and encouraged the earl of Richmond, at this time in France, to invade England; at the ſame time aſſuring him, that it would be agreeable to the nation to eſpouſe the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter of Edward IV. Accordingly the earl, at the head of two thouſand foreigners, landed on the 30th of July, 1485, at Milford-haven, and being joined by ſeven thouſand Engliſh and Welſh, he advanced towards king Richard, and on the 22d of Auguſt they met in Boſworth-field; an engagement enſued, in which Richard's army was totally defeated, and he himſelf after diſplaying the moſt amazing acts of perſonal courage, was left dead on the field of battle.

The Lines of York and Lancaſter united.

S. What were the pretenſions of the earl of Richmond to the crown of England?

M. His mother was great grand-daughter of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, and on the death of Edward, prince of Wales, ſon to Henry VI. ſhe became the head of that illuſtrious family. By his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. he added the ſeveral claims of the houſe of York. Henry, however, founded his rights upon

conqueſt, and affected to pay no regard to the advantages of his marriage.

S. What were the principal tranſactions of his reign?

M. He impriſoned the young earl of Warwick, ſon to the duke of Clarence, merely becauſe he was allied to the houſe of York. He aboliſhed liveries and retainers, which gave an irrecoverable blow to the power of the barons, who before this could ſhelter any malefactor from the law, by ſuffering him to wear his livery, and attend his perſon; and as a finiſhing ſtroke to the feudal tenures, he paſſed an act, whereby the barons, and gentlemen of landed intereſt, were at liberty to ſell and mortgage their eſtates, without fines or licences for the alienation. Henry was alſo the firſt monarch who appointed that guard called Yeomen, which ſtill ſubſiſts.

S. Did he enjoy his crown in peace?

M. Several rebellions broke out in the beginning of his reign, but they were eaſily ſuppreſſed, as was the impoſtor Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the impriſoned earl of Warwick. Henry had likewiſe many difficulties to ſurmount both in France and Ireland, which having accompliſhed, he found new ones in the pretenſions of Perkin Warbeck, who aſſerted he was the duke of York, ſecond ſon to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as ſuch by the ducheſs of Burgundy, Edward's ſiſter. The courts of France and Scotland ſeemed likewiſe to have ſuppoſed him the real duke of York.

S. What became of this adventurer?

M. After various misfortunes he fell into Henry's hands, and was confined in the Tower: from whence he endeavoured to make his eſcape with the innocent and unfortunate earl of Warwick; but being both diſcovered, Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded.

S. Was it not this monarch who married two of his ſons to one woman?

M. Yes: Arthur, prince of Wales, eſpouſed Catharine, daughter to Ferdinand, king of Spain; but the prince dying ſoon after, Henry, unwilling to refund the great dowry, conſented to her being married to his ſecond ſon; alledging, as an excuſe for this extraordinary conduct, that the firſt marriage had never been conſummated.

S. Did Henry erect any public edifices?

M. He

M. He built that elegant ſtructure, adjoining to Weſtminſter Abbey, known to this day by the appellation of Henry VII's Chapel; and the royal palace at Sheen being deſtroyed by fire, he rebuilt it, and called it Richmond.

S. When did he die?

M. On the 22d of April, 1509, in the 52d year of his age, and the 24th of his reign.

S. By whom was he ſucceeded?

M. By his ſecond ſon, Henry VIII.

S. What character do hiſtorians give us of this prince?

M. That he was of a frank and candid diſpoſition; liberal to exceſs; and brave without oſtentation. He was a generous encourager of learning and the arts, and ſkilled both in philoſophy and divinity. As a ſhade to ſuch great qualities, he was cruel, and a continual dupe to his favourites.

S. What occaſioned his quarrel with the Roman ſee?

M. I have already obſerved that he married Catharine, his brother's wife; but growing weary of her, though he pretended it was from a qualm of conſcience, he endeavoured to obtain a divorce from the Pope, who at firſt gave him ſome hopes, but afterwards recalled his word: this conduct ſo exaſperated Henry, that he ſent Catharine to Kimbolton, and privately married Anna Boleyn. He afterwards prevailed on Cranmer, archbiſhop of Canterbury, to diſannul his former marriage. Enraged at theſe proceedings, Leo X. excommunicated the king, but had cauſe ſoon after to repent this haſty ſtep: for Henry now threw of all reſtraint; the parliament declared him ſupreme head of the church of England, and granted him the firſt-fruits and tenths of the revenues of all benefices. He then totally aboliſhed the monaſteries and made a partition of their immenſe treaſures among his courtiers and favourites. Such noblemen as dared to oppoſe his deſigns were put to death; among theſe were the famous Sir Thomas Moore, lord high chancellor; and John Fiſher, biſhop of Roche ſter. The aged counteſs of Saliſbury, who was an immediate deſcendant from Edward IV. the marquis of Exeter, lord Montague, and ſeveral more of the blood royal, likewiſe fell victims to the cruelty of Henry.

S. Who was the king's chief favourite?

M. Thomas Wolſey, generally ſuppoſed to have been a butcher's

butcher's ſon at Ipſwich, in Suffolk. His ſingular talents diſtinguiſhed him at Magdalen College, Oxford, where he was a ſtudent. Being introduced at court by Fox, biſhop of Wincheſter, he was appointed almoner to the houſhold; and Henry, conceiving a great affection for him, firſt made him a member of his privy council, and then prime miniſter. Soon after he was created biſhop of Lincoln, from whence he was tranſlated to the archbiſhopric of York, and by the intereſt of Francis I. king of France, raiſed to the purple. Henry likewiſe appointed him lord high chancellor, and procured him a commiſſion from the pope, nominating him legate à latere. Such unbounded favours, however, did not ſatisfy the ſtill more unbounded ambition of Wolſey. He aimed at the pontifical chair, to which the emperor, Charles V. had promiſed to raiſe him; but finding that monarch had deceived him, he, out of revenge, perſuaded Henry to ſolicit a divorce from Catharine, aunt of Charles. This affair, however, terminated in his ruin; for not having ſufficient intereſt at the court of Rome to obtain the grants with which he had flattered Henry's hopes, he became odious to that monarch; who weary with the repeated complaints exhibited againſt the cardinal and the continual ſolicitation of Anna Boleyn, ſeized all his furniture, papers, and money, and even cauſed him to be impeached of high treaſon. Wolſey retired to Leiceſter-Abbey, where he died of grief on the 29th of November, 1530. Thomas Cranmer, and Thomas Cromwell, were likewiſe great favourites with Henry. The former was born in Nottinghamſhire. Having travelled into Germany, and there ſtudied the tenets of Luther, he embraced his doctrines. Henry having nominated him to the archbiſhopric of Canterbury, he annulled his marriage with Catharine, and then excommunicated the pope himſelf. This prelate preſided over all the eccleſiaſtical affairs during the remaining part of Henry's reign. Cromwell was ſon to a blackſmith at Putney, and ſervant to Wolſey, who recommending him to Henry, he was firſt appointed viſitor-general of all the monaſteries which were ſuppreſſed in 1530, and then created vice-gerent in matters eccleſiaſtical, and earl of Eſſex. But Cromwell being a proteſtant, and having diſguſted the king by forwarding his marriage with Ann of Cleves, he cauſed him to be impeached of high-treaſon, and beheaded on Tower-hill.

S. Was

S. Was Henry engaged in any wars?

M. He invaded France with a powerful army, which he commanded in perſon, and, having defeated a conſiderable body of French troops, he took Terouenne and Tournay. In the mean time the earl of Surrey advanced againſt the Scots, who were marching into England with an army of ſixty thouſand men, and coming up to them at Flodden, an engagement enſued, wherein James the IV. king of Scotland was killed, and the Engliſh obtained a complete victory. A peace being now concluded between France and England, Henry appointed a conference to be held between him and James V. at York; but James having forfeited his word, Henry marched into Scotland, put their army to flight, and took a great number of priſoners. Some time after he entered into a confederacy with Charles V. in order to attack France, and having landed at Calais he laid ſiege to Boulogne, which ſurrendered to him on the fourteenth of September 1544. It is remarkable that in both his quarrels with France, Henry was the dupe of foreign powers, particularly of the emperor Maximilian, the pooreſt prince in Europe.

S. How often was Henry VIII. married?

M. Six times; firſt, to Catherine of Arragon, by whom he had the princeſs Mary, afterwards queen of England, and two more children, who died very young. Secondly, to Anna Boleyn, who brought him only one daughter, named Elizabeth, who ſucceeded to the crown of England after Mary. Anna Boleyn was beheaded on the ſixteenth of May 1536, falling a victim to Henry's jealouſy. Thirdly, to Jane Seymour, whom he married the next day after the death of Anna, and cauſed her to be crowned with great ſolemnity. This queen died in child-bed of prince Edward, who ſucceeded Henry on the throne. Fourthly, to Ann of Cleves, who had been repreſented to him as one of the greateſt beauties of the age; but the firſt ſight of her diſguſted him ſo much, that he was divorced from her in a very ſhort time. Fifthly, to Catherine Howard, whom he cauſed to be beheaded for ante-nuptial incontinence. Sixthly, to Catherine Par, who narrowly eſcaped being brought to the ſtake by Henry for her religious principles, ſhe being a favourer of the reformation; and in all probability would have ſuffered, had not death put a ſtop

to

to Henry's cruelty. This event happened on the twenty-eighth of January, 1547, after he had reigned thirty-eight years.

S. Did Henry embrace the doctrines of Luther?

M. His opinion in religion was always wavering; but is is generally ſuppoſed that he died in the principles of the church of Rome; for though he favoured the reformation, he cauſed ſeveral proteſtants to be burnt.

S. How did he ſettle the ſucceſſion?

M. He ordered that Edward, his ſon by Jane Seymour, ſhould ſucceed him; that in default of his iſſue, Mary ſhould aſcend the throne: and in caſe ſhe died without children, Elizabeth ſhould be recognized queen.

S. What memorable tranſactions happened in this reign?

M. Before his quarrel with the church of Rome, Henry publiſhed a book againſt Luther, for which the Pope gave him the appellation of *Defender of the Faith*, which his ſucceſſors retain to this day. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was erected into a kingdom, of which Henry aſſumed the title of king. Six hundred and forty-five abbies, 152 colleges, and 129 hoſpitals, were totally ſuppreſſed. The ſix articles of religion were eſtabliſhed by act of parliament; and the bible and litany were tranſlated into Engliſh, and ordered to be read in all churches.

S. Did Edward VI. ſucceed his father?

M. Yes: but he being at that time only nine years of age, the adminiſtration of affairs, agreeably to Henry's will, devolved on twelve counſellors, and ſixteen regents; but, after ſome diſputes were ſettled, theſe appointed Edward Seymour, duke of Somerſet, and uncle to the king, protector. This nobleman was a reat friend to the reformation, and inſtilled the ſame principles into Edward. Private maſſes were immediately aboliſhed; all images removed out of the churches; the cup reſtored to the laity; the common prayer ordered to be corrected; and the reformation confirmed by act of parliament. Theſe rapid changes, however, were not effected without great troubles: many counties took up arms; but the rebels being defeated in ſeveral ſkirmiſhes, accepted of a general pardon offered them by the king. The protector then marched an army

army into Scotland, with a deſign of obliging the Scots to give their young queen Mary, only daughter of James V. in marriage to Edward. Here he was for ſome time victorious, having defeated the queen's forces in a pitched battle, taken ſeveral ſtrong places, and plundered Edinburgh. But Henry II. king of France, ſending a ſtrong reinforcement to the Scots, they drove the Engliſh out of their kingdom.

S. How did the protector proceed?

M. During his abſence a faction, headed by his own brother, who had married the queen dowager, and been created lord high admiral, was formed againſt him, which haſtened his return to England; when his brother was accuſed of high treaſon, and beheaded. The protector, however, found a much more formidable enemy in John Dudley, earl of Warwick, and duke of Northumberland. That nobleman cauſed him to be diſmiſſed from his employment; and at length procured an act of parliament, whereby the protector was pronounced guilty of felony, and condemned to loſe his head. This ſentence was executed on the twenty-ſecond of January, 1552.

S. Who ſucceeded to the regency?

M. Dudley; who immediately concluded a peace with France and Scotland, and reſtored Boulogne to Henry II. on condition that he ſhould pay four hundred thouſand gold crowns to Edward. He then took advantage of the young king's zeal for the reformation, and prevailed on him to diſinherit his ſiſters, Mary and Elizabeth, in favour of Jane Grey, daughter to the duke of Suffolk, and married to lord Guildford, fourth ſon to Dudley.

S. How could ſhe have any pretenſions to the crown?

M. Mary, queen dowager of France, and daughter to Henry VII. king of England, married Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk; by whom ſhe had one daughter, married to Henry Grey, marquis of Dorſet, and afterwards duke of Suffolk. By this lady he had three daughters, of whom lady Jane was the eldeſt. All hiſtorians agree in giving this young lady an exalted character; and it is certain that, entirely free from ambition herſelf, ſhe fell a ſacrifice to that of her father.

S. Were any remarkable actions performed by Edward VI.

M. He

M. He was ſo extremely young when he died, and always obliged to act in concert with the regency during his life, that he had very little opportunity of exerting himſelf. He, however, confirmed the grant of Chriſt's and St. Bartholomew's hoſpitals, made by his father, Henry VIII. to the city of London. He founded Bridewell and St. Thomas's hoſpitals; encouraged trade, and granted large privileges to the merchants: and there is no doubt but he would have completely eſtabliſhed the reformed religion in England, had not death put a ſtop to the excellent meaſures he was taking for that purpoſe. A deep conſumption cauſed his diſſolution on the ſixth of July, 1553, in the ſeventeenth year of his age, and the ſeventh of his reign.

S. Did the duke of Northumberland attempt to execute the will of Edward in regard to the ſucceſſion?

M. He cauſed lady Jane to be proclaimed queen, and ſhe was recognized as ſuch in the city of London. But on the approach of Mary's army, the citizens abandoned this unhappy lady, who was ſoon after beheaded. Her huſband, lord Guildford Dudley, the duke of Northumberland, and ſeveral other perſons of diſtinction, alſo ſuffered the ſame fate.

S. By what acts is the reign of Mary diſtinguiſhed?

M. By thoſe of cruelty and oppreſſion. Being a bigotted papiſt, ſhe proſecuted the proteſtants with all the violence of enthuſiaſtic fury. No leſs than three hundred periſhed in defence of their religion; among whom were archbiſhop Cranmer, and the biſhops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer: in a word, neither ſex, age, nor quality, pre ented theſe unhappy victims from being brought to the ſtake.

S. Was this queen ever married?

M. Yes, to Philip II. of Spain; at whoſe inſtigation ſhe declared war againſt France, which proved of the utmoſt diſadvantage to this nation. The duke of Guiſe, general of the French army, deprived the Engliſh of Calais, Guiens, and every other poſſeſſion they had in France. This loſs is ſaid to have broken Mary's heart. She died on the ſeventeenth of November, 1558, in the forty-fourth year of her age, and the ſixth of her reign.

S. By whom was ſhe ſucceeded on the throne?

M. By her half ſiſter, Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. and Anna Boleyn. Her title to the crown, however,

ever, on account of the circumſtances attending her mother's marriage and death, was diſputed by Mary queen of Scots, grand-child to a daughter of Henry VII. and married to the dauphin of France. Elizabeth's great prudence ſoon ſubdued this, and a thouſand other diſficulties which occurred on her aſcending the throne. In her firſt parliament, the laws enacted by her furious predeceſſor, for eſtabliſhing popery, were repealed, and ſoon after an act of uniformity was paſſed.

S. Was Elizabeth engaged in any wars?

M. She aſſiſted the Dutch and all her other allies with troops and money; but the only war in her reign which may be ſaid to have immediately affected this nation, was that with Spain.

S. From what cauſe did this proceed?

M. On Elizabeth's acceſſion to the throne, Philip II. offered to marry her, but ſhe artfully avoided his addreſſes. Philip finding that ſhe baffled him in every quarter, equipped a formidable fleet, which he ſtiled the Invincible Armada, in order to invade England. On the twenty-ninth of May, 1588, it ſailed from the river Tagus; but being diſperſed by a ſtorm the fleet rendezvouſed at the Groine. On the nineteenth of July, the Spaniards entered the Britiſh channel, where they were attacked by our fleet, under the command of Admiral Howard. Numbers of their ſhips were taken or deſtroyed, and moſt of thoſe which eſcaped the fury of the Engliſh, fell a ſacrifice to a violent tempeſt. Thus ended this formidable invaſion, which will ever appear with the brighteſt glory in the Engliſh annals, while it eternally diſgraces thoſe of Spain.

S. Did not Elizabeth ſend aſſiſtance to the malcontents in Scotland?

M. Yes; till by her intrigues, and the imprudent conduct of Mary, queen of Scots, the latter was obliged to abandon her own kingdom, and ſeek refuge in England: where Elizabeth detained her cloſe priſoner for eighteen years, then brought her to a trial, and, without ſufficient proof of guilt, beheaded her. This breach of hoſpitality and friendſhip, has caſt a thick ſhade over the reign of Elizabeth, and tarniſhed all its glories.

S. Was Elizabeth ever married?

M. No; and herein ſhe ſhewed that policy which guided

ded almoſt every action of her life: for all the young princes of Europe, or ſuch who had ſons or brothers to diſpoſe of in marriage, paid her the greateſt deference; ſhe always, by her evaſive conduct, leaving each ſome room to hope he ſhould obtain the honour of being her conſort.

S. Who were her principal favourites?

M. Firſt, Robert Dudley, whom ſhe created earl of Leiceſter; but he dying, ſhe diſtinguiſhed by particular marks of favour the young earl of Eſſex. This nobleman obtained an unbounded influence over the queen, which in ſome meaſure taught him to forget the reſpect he owed her. Elizabeth's pride took the alarm, and Eſſex was forbid the court. There is no doubt, had he employed gentle means, he might without much difficulty have been reſtored to favour: but he, on the contrary, entered into a conſpiracy againſt the queen, which proving unſucceſsful he was ſeized, tried, and beheaded. The queen ſeems never to have recovered his death, for not long after ſhe was troubled with a ſinking of her ſpirits, which put a period to her life on the twenty-fourth of March, 1603. having firſt named James, king of Scotland, and ſon to Mary, whom ſhe cauſed to be beheaded, for her ſucceſſor.

S. When was James crowned king of England?

M. On the twenty-fifth of July, 1603, and was the firſt monarch who aſſumed the title of king of Great Britain, hoping thereby to put an end to the conteſts between his Engliſh and Scotiſh ſubjects.

S. Was his government agreeable to the people of his new kingdom?

M. He ſeems to have had no juſt ideas of the liberties and conſtitution of England; and that ignorance betrayed him into many ſteps which exceeded the bounds of royal prerogative, and became the cauſe of great diſcontent to the Engliſh.

S. What wars was he engaged in?

M. None, being always contented with employing himſelf in negociations; but having given his daughter Elizabeth in marriage to the elector palatine, that prince, contrary to the inclination of James, aſſumed, ſoon after, the title of king of Bohemia, which occaſioned a war between him, the emperor, and the king of Spain. James ſent ſome

troops

troops to his aſſiſtance, and encouraged the Dutch to ſupport the elector. This monarch would have made a much better figure in a college than on a throne, for his chief delight was the ſtudy of divinity, on which ſubject he wrote ſeveral pieces.

S. Were there no conſpiracies formed againſt him?

M. Yes, two; the firſt before his coronation, which being diſcovered, ſeveral of the conſpirators were executed. The other was formed by ſome Roman Catholics, who intended to deſtroy the king and parliament, by blowing up the parliament houſe with gunpowder. The day fixed for the execution of this diabolical deſign, was the fifth of November, 1605, but happily the diſcovery was made time enough to prevent the execution.

S. How long did James reign over England?

M. Twenty-two years; but fifty-eight over Scotland. He died of a tertian ague on the twenty-ſeventh of March, 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age.

S. Who ſucceeded him?

M. His ſon, Charles I. whoſe reign was a continual ſcene of diſſenſion between him and his parliament.

S. From what cauſe?

M. The ſpirit of the people had obliged the late king to declare war againſt Spain: when Charles aſcended the throne he gave ſuch early indications of a deſpotic diſpoſition, and of his partiality for Villiers, duke of Buckingham, who, in the preceding reign, had rendered himſelf odious to the nation, that the parliament refuſed him the neceſſary ſupplies for carrying on the war. Notwithſtanding which, at the earneſt ſolicitations of Buckingham, he took the part of the Hugonots in their quarrel with France. Buckingham was appointed to command the forces ſent to their relief, but being arrived at Portſmouth, where he was to embark, he was ſtabbed by a diſcontented lieutenant of foot, named Felton.

S. Did the death of his favourite make any alteration in the conduct of Charles?

M. He ſtill continued his arbitrary proceedings, and the parliament was as determined not to grant him any ſupplies. The king then laid impoſitions upon trade, which, being done without the conſent of parliament, ſeveral merchants,

chants, members of the houſe of commons, refuſed to pay them. Charles now found himſelf obliged to diſſolve the parliament. Soon after he impriſoned nine of the principal members of the lower houſe; but this only ſerved to widen the breach, and render his government ſtill more unpopular. Unfortunately for him his affairs in Scotland were as perplexed as in England; for at the inſtigation of archbiſhop Laud, he endeavoured to eſtabliſh the church of Scotland upon the ſame baſis with that of England. The Scots immediately took the alarm, formed ſecret connections with the diſcontented Engliſh, and invaded South Britain. Charles, however, obliged them to ſue for peace, which laſted but a very ſhort time; for the king diſcovering that ſome of their principal nobility had offered to throw themſelves under the protection of the French king, aſſembled an army in 1640, to invade Scotland. The ſame year he was under the neceſſity of calling a parliament, when the rebels being openly protected by the houſe of commons, Charles was obliged to conſent to an inglorious peace.

S. How did this parliament proceed?

M. Contrary to the ancient conſtitutions of England, they declared themſelves perpetual, and having beheaded archbiſhop Laud, and the earl of Strafford, they joined in a confederacy with the Scotch rebels, and declared war againſt both king and monarchy.

S. How did Charles behave in this dreadful exigency?

M. He levied an army, which he headed himſelf: the princes Rupert, and Maurice, ſons to the elector palatine, with the earl of Lindſey, acting under him. The parliament appointed the earl of Eſſex commander of their forces, and ſeveral battles were fought between the two armies; but none deciſive till that at Marſton Moor, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, four thouſand were killed and fifteen hundred taken priſoners. By this time a ſet of people who ſtiled themſelves Independents, and deteſted equally the preſbyterians and royaliſts, began to take the lead in parliament under the direction of Oliver Cromwell, to whoſe courage and conduct the above victory was chiefly owing. Several treaties were ſet on foot for peace, to which the preſbyterians would willingly have conſented, but were always over ruled by the independents.

At

At length, after losing all his towns and forts, Charles was defeated by Fairfax, then general of the parliament's forces, and Cromwell, at the decisive battle of Naseby.

S. What became of this unfortunate monarch?

M. He first endeavoured to get into Wales, but having met with a defeat at Chester, he withdrew to Oxford; but was obliged to abandon that city to Fairfax. Not knowing where to find a safe retreat in England, Charles went over to the Scotch army, hoping they would afford him protection; but being intimidated by the proceedings at Westminster, they delivered him into the hands of the parliament's commissioners.

S. What was the consequence?

M. They removed him from prison to prison, till at length he found means to escape, but was soon retaken. By this time the independents had voted the house of peers to be useless, and drove all the presbyterians out of the house of commons, which was now formed of a hundred and fifty independents, most of them officers in the army. This infamous rabble dared to establish a pretended high court of justice to try their sovereign; who, when brought before them, justly refused to acknowledge their power. Notwithstanding this, they proceeded to his trial, and condemned him to lose his head; which horrid sentence was executed on the thirtieth of January, 1648-9.

Commonwealth.

S. In what state was the government after the death of Charles?

M. The independents published a declaration, forbidding any person to proclaim Charles Stuart, the late king's eldest son, on pain of being punished for high treason; and having set a price upon his head, they proceeded to pass an act for extirpating the regal power in England.

S. What became of Charles?

M. Ireland and Scotland recognized his title to the throne, and on the first of January, 1651, he was crowned at Scone. He then put himself at the head of eighteen thousand horse and foot, and entering England, advanced as far as Worcester, where he was received with open arms by the inhabitants. Cromwell having followed him with

haſty marches, the two armies came to an engagement. In a few hours the royaliſts were put to the rout, and Charles narrowly eſcaped being taken priſoner. He then put himſelf under the protection of a faithful guide, who conducted him by night acroſs the country to the coaſt of Suſſex, where he embarked for France.

S. How did Cromwell proceed?

M. He ſoon put a ſtop to the tumults in England and Scotland, and having got himſelf declared commander in chief of the Engliſh army, he went with a file of muſqueteers to Weſtminſter, and diſſolved the parliament. He next annihilated the council of ſtate, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the adminiſtration of government to one hundred and forty-four perſons; but at his command theſe alſo reſigned their power, and he cauſed himſelf to be declared protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

S. Was England engaged in any foreign wars during this period?

M. The commonwealth having declared war againſt the Dutch, ſeven engagements were fought in the courſe of one year; and in the laſt, which was deciſive in favour of England, the famous Dutch admiral, Van Tromp, was ſlain. In 1654, Oliver conſented to a peace with the Hollanders, on condition that they ſhould pay three hundred thouſand pounds to England. Spain likewiſe ſuffered at this time, and Cromwell having entered into a league with France againſt that power, Dunkirk and Mardyke were both ſurrendered into his hands.

S. How long did Cromwell maintain this unbounded power?

M. Till his death, which happened in 1658, the fifth year of his protectorſhip, and ſixtieth of his age.

S. Did this form of government continue long after his deceaſe?

M. No: Richard, ſon to the protector, was declared his father's ſucceſſor by ſome perſons who had ſiniſter views to anſwer; but in a ſhort time he was deprived of his power, and lived ever after unſought for and unknown. The generality of people now ardently wiſhed for the reſtoration of monarchy; but, ſuch was their dread of the army, at this time

time commanded by Fleetwood and Lambert, the latter a man of unbounded ambition, that none dared avow their ſentiments publicly. At length general Monk, governor of Scotland, declared, though by very ſlow degrees, for king Charles, and having with the utmoſt precaution brought things to the deſired point, he informed his royal maſter of his proceedings; adviſing him to depute ſome perſon to the parliament, which, among other excellent regulations, he had reſtored. The king having followed his advice, it was reſolved that ſome of the members ſhould be ſent to his majeſty, inviting him to return, and he was immediately proclaimed king of Great Britain. On the twenty-third of May, 1660, Charles landed at Dover, and on the twenty-ninth entered London amidſt the acclamations of the people.

S. Did the king's conduct anſwer the expectations of his ſubjects?

M. At firſt his only ſtudy ſeemed to be, how he ſhould render them moſt happy. He paſſed an act of indemnity; repealed all the laws enacted in favour of a popular government; reſtored the epiſcopal clergy to their benefices, of which Oliver had deprived them, and ſettled affairs upon the ſame footing they were before the year 1640. But this ſun-ſhine of happineſs was ſoon obſcured with the clouds of apprehenſion and diſtruſt. Charles's love of pleaſure betrayed him into numberleſs errors, and occaſioned perpetual miſunderſtandings between him and the parliament; who endeavoured, by every poſſible method, to diſinherit James, duke of York, brother to the king, and preſumptive heir to the crown. Plots that never exiſted were publiſhed merely to promote the advantage of each reſpective party.

S. Was Charles engaged in any wars?

M. In 1664, he declared war againſt Holland, and gave the command of the fleet to the duke of York, who behaved in ſeveral engagements with the utmoſt intrepidity. In 1667, peace was proclaimed, and ſoon after that famous treaty, called the Triple Alliance, was formed between the Engliſh, the Swedes, and the Dutch. War was once more declared againſt the States in 1672, both by France and England, wherein the Dutch were at firſt prodigious

ſufferers; but in the end they retrieved their affairs greatly, and a general peace was concluded in 1674. The ſame year the prince of Orange married Mary, the eldeſt daughter of the duke of York, and in 1677-8, had the art to perſuade Charles to join in a defenſive league againſt the French; but this being a meaſure the king was always averſe to, the Dutch received very little aſſiſtance from him, and therefore concluded a peace with France. Charles was engaged in no other foreign wars from that time to his death, which happened on the ſixth of February, 1684-5, it being the fifty-fourth year of his age, and the twenty-fifth of his reign, ſince his reſtoration.

S. What remarkable events happened during his reign?

M. In 1665, a dreadful plague happened in London, by which 67,576 perſons periſhed in one year; and in 1666, a terrible fire broke out, which conſumed 13,200 houſes, and 80 churches.

S. Who ſucceeded Charles II?

M. His brother, James, duke of York, a profeſt Roman Catholic; though had he not alſo been a doting bigot, he might, in all probability, have governed England with honour to himſelf, and advantage to his people. But his blind zeal for religion hurried him on to his own deſtruction: for having ſuppreſſed a rebellion, headed by the duke of Monmouth, a natural ſon of king Charles II. he endeavoured to render popery the eſtabliſhed religion of his dominions; but the methods he took to execute this deſign were diſcountenanced, even by the Pope himſelf. Alarmed at his proceedings, many great men applied for relief to the prince of Orange, who liſtened to their complaints, and having equipped a fleet with all poſſible ſecrecy, landed in England, where he was joined by Anne, daughter to king James, and her huſband, the prince of Denmark, together with many of the king's beſt friends.

S. How did James behave in this alarming juncture?

M. He firſt tried his army, but finding he could have no dependence on his ſoldiers, he ſent commiſſioners to the prince of Orange with propoſals, which were accepted; and if we may judge from circumſtances, affairs might have been ſettled to the ſatisfaction of all parties, had it not been for the ignorance of the papiſts, who adviſed the king to retire into France; whither the queen, with the prince

prince of Wales, were already ſent. Accordingly, after ſome difficulty, his majeſty embarked for that kingdom; and having landed ſafe at Ambletuſe, he proceeded to St. Germains, where he reſided till his death; an event which did not happen till the year 1701, when he was upwards of ſixty-ſeven years of age; of which he reigned not quite three.

S. What meaſures were taken in England, after the departure of James?

M. The eſtates of the kingdom having aſſembled, they took upon them the title of *Convention*. The commons did not heſitate a moment about declaring the throne vacant; but the lords were ſome time before they gave their aſſent. Several forms of government were afterwards propoſed, and among the reſt, that the crown ſhould be given to Mary, conſort to the prince of Orange; but that prince informed the *Convention* that he would return back to Holland, in caſe they declared the princeſs queen, without allowing him an equal ſhare in the regal power. The Convention, therefore, came to a reſolution, that the prince and princeſs of Orange ſhould be declared king and queen jointly; which was performed on the thirteenth of February, 1689, and on the eleventh of April they were crowned in Weſtminſter Abbey.

S. Did James II. make any efforts to recover his crown?

M. Moſt part of Ireland ſtill continued faithful to him, and, the French king having ſupplied him with forces, he landed in that kingdom. Here, however, his ill fortune ſeemed to purſue him: for his forces were totally defeated on the banks of the Boyne, by king William, on the firſt of July, 1690; and, in the following year, a final ſtroke was given to all his hopes of re-aſcending the throne of England.

S. Did William and Mary reſent the behaviour of France?

M. They did; and accordingly on the ſeventh of May, 1689, war was declared againſt that kingdom, which raged till the year 1697, when William having obliged France to acknowledge his title to the crown of England, a peace was concluded between the two powers. During this war queen Mary died, ſincerely regretted by her royal conſort, and the people, whom, in the moſt troubleſome times,

ſhe had governed with the greateſt prudence and tenderneſs.

S. Was William engaged in any other wars?

M. No; but in all probability a rupture would have happened with the king of France, who, contrary to a treaty concluded between William and that monarch, ſeized, on the death of Charles II. of Spain, upon all his territories, had not the demiſe of king William put an end to the great deſigns he was forming for that purpoſe. This event happened on the eighth of March, 1701-2, it being the fifty-ſecond year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign.

S. Did he leave any iſſue?

M. No; Ann Stuart, ſecond daughter to king James II. ſucceeded to the crown. This princeſs had ſeveral years before married George, prince of Denmark.

S. Did ſhe make any alteration in government?

M. She declared, on her acceſſion to the throne, that ſhe was firmly reſolved to execute the plan laid by king William for reſtoring the balance of Europe; that prince having for this purpoſe entered into an alliance with the emperor and the ſtates-general. Several other powers afterwards acceded to this treaty. Accordingly on the fourth of May, 1702, war was declared againſt France, and the duke of Marlborough appointed to command the Engliſh army in the Netherlands: when an almoſt uninterrupted ſeries of ſucceſs and triumph attended the allies, particularly the Engliſh, for nine years ſucceſſively.

S. Of what advantage was this war to England?

M. None; owing to the infamous peace which was concluded in 1713. The whole reign of Ann was diſturbed by two parties, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Whigs and Tories; the former headed by the duke of Marlborough, the latter by Robert Harley, afterwards earl of Oxford; Sir Simon Harcourt, and Henry St. John, created lord Bolingbroke. The whigs had the management of affairs during the chief part of the war; but at length Harley inſinuated himſelf into the queen's confidence; Marlborough's relations and friends were removed from all poſts of truſt and honour, and their places ſupplied by tories. On the thirty-firſt of December, 1711, even that great general himſelf was deprived of all his employments,

and the command of the army given to the duke of Ormond. From that time affairs abroad began to wear an unfavourable aſpect; and the conditions of peace being agreed on between Ann and Lewis XIV. it was concluded without any regard to the allies of England.

S. How long did the queen enjoy this peace?

M. A very ſhort time; and it is confidently aſſerted, that the diſtractions which reigned in her councils brought on her diſſolution. She died on the firſt of Auguſt, 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign.

S. By whom was ſhe ſucceeded?

M. By George, elector of Hanover, whoſe grandmother was Elizabeth, daughter to king James I. He arrived in England on the eighteenth of Auguſt, and on the twentieth of October was crowned at Weſtminſter, with the uſual ſolemnity.

S. What actions did he perform at the beginning of his reign?

M. Being ſtrongly prepoſſeſſed againſt the tories, he diſplaced moſt of them, and made an entire change in the miniſtry.

S. Did George I. meet with no oppoſition?

M. Great diſorders were committed by the diſcontented populace in ſeveral parts of the kingdom. This obliged the parliament to paſs a bill, ſince known by the name of the riot act, for preventing diſorderly aſſemblies. A rebellion broke out in Scotland, headed by the earl of Mar, in favour of the pretender; and another in England, under one Forſter; but they were both happily ſuppreſſed; and ſeveral noblemen, concerned in them, were executed. In 1716-17, the nation was alarmed with an intended invaſion from Sweden, in order to reſtore James; but every neceſſary precaution being taken to give the enemy a proper reception, it was never attempted.

S. Was the nation engaged in any wars during this reign?

M. Yes; two with Spain, who had engaged to aſſiſt the pretender. The king accuſed the emperor of having the ſame views, and in all probability a rupture would have happened with that potentate, had not the death of George prevented it. He died on the eleventh of June,

1727, at Oſnaburgh, in the ſixty-eighth year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign.

S. Who ſucceeded him?

M. His only ſon, George II.

S. What were the principal events of his reign?

M. In 1729, a peace was concluded between Great Britain, France, and Spain; but it was of a very ſhort duration; for the Spaniards having committed great depredations upon our ſhipping in the American ſeas, a rupture enſued with that power; and on the thirty-firſt of March, 1744, war was declared againſt France. England being thus involved abroad, and her councils divided, on account of Hanover, at home, her enemies endeavoured to avail themſelves of her ſituation, and having applied to the pretender, who now reſided at Rome, he agreed that his ſon ſhould repair to France, and from thence to Scotland. Accordingly, in Auguſt, 1744, he landed in that kingdom with ſome of his followers, having narrowly eſcaped being taken by the Engliſh. He immediately publiſhed a manifeſto, exciting the people to a rebellion, and being joined by a conſiderable body of Highlanders, cauſed his father to be proclaimed king at Perth. The duke of Cumberland, whom this rebellion had brought from the Netherlands, where he commanded the Engliſh army, obtained a complete victory on the 16th of April, 1746, over the rebels, near Culloden. Several lords, and others, were taken and executed, and the young pretender himſelf narrowly eſcaped to the Continent. The war with France and Spain, which had been glorious for England by ſea, but quite otherwiſe by land, continued till the year 1748; when, on the thirtieth of April, the preliminaries for a general peace were ſigned at Aix-la-Chapelle; and in October a definitive treaty was concluded.

S. How long did this peace laſt?

M. Till the year 1755, when the French, having made great encroachments upon our back ſettlements in America, were, at the ſame time, preparing a large fleet, in order to ſupport, if not extend theſe encroachments. Admiral Boſcawen was therefore ordered to ſail with a ſtrong ſquadron to the banks of Newfoundland, where he took two men of war, being part of the fleet I have already mentioned; the reſt eſcaped up the river St. Lawrence,

rence. Orders were now iſſued for making general repriſals in Europe as well as in America, and that all French ſhips ſhould be ſtopped and brought into Britiſh ports. Accordingly, before the end of the year, ſeveral of their richeſt merchant ſhips and above 8000 of their beſt ſeamen were in our hands. At the ſame time the war was carried on by land in America with the utmoſt vigour. Unfortunately, general Braddock, who had received orders to reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and ſlain, by falling into an ambuſcade of the French and Indians, near Fort du Queſne; but, as ſome alleviation to this misfortune, major general Johnſon defeated a body of the enemy near Crown Point. In April, 1756, the French landed eleven thouſand men in Minorca, which not being properly ſuccoured by admiral Byng, who had been ſent out with a ſquadron equal to that of the enemy, the governor was obliged to ſurrender the iſland. Admiral Byng was recalled, tried, and, being found guilty of not doing his duty, was ſhot on board the Monarque in Portſmouth harbour.

S. Was his miſconduct productive of any diſagreeable conſequences?

M. None, but that of the loſs of Fort St. Philip, which was more than compenſated by the ſucceſs that attended our privateers both in Europe and America, while colonel Clive was equally fortunate by land in the Eaſt Indies. About the time of Admiral Byng's diſgrace, Mr. Pitt, afterwards lord Chatham, was appointed ſecretary of ſtate, and planned an expedition for invading France. Accordingly a fleet was equipped under Sir Edward Hawke, and the command of the land-forces given to Sir John Mordaunt, with orders to make a deſcent at Rochfort. On the eighth of September they ſailed for the French coaſt, but the general finding it impoſſible to land his men, the whole fleet returned to St. Helens on the ſixth of October. In the mean time the French had attacked Hanover with a formidable army, and his late royal highneſs the duke of Cumberland, who had been ſent there merely to command an army of obſervation, could not prevent the enemy from taking poſſeſſion of that electorate, and was obliged to agree to a treaty, which was ſigned at Cloſter-ſeven.

S. Did Hanover remain long in the poſſeſſion of the enemy?

M. It did for ſome time; but in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence was entered into between George II. and the king of Pruſſia. Fifty thouſand of the troops of Hanover, Heſſe-Caſſel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttle, and Buckeburgh, were taken into Britiſh pay; and the king of England ordered his Hanoverian ſubjects to reſume their arms under the command of prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick; the French having given them an opportunity by violating the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven. The prince obeyed his orders with great alacrity, and immediately drove the enemy out of Hanover. He was ſoon after joined by the duke of Marlborough, with twelve thouſand Britiſh troops, which were afterwards increaſed to twenty-five thouſand. With this reinforcement the war in Germany was carried on with the utmoſt vigour; and ſeveral battles were fought with great advantage to the allies; but none more ſo than that of Minden, in which about ſeven thouſand Engliſh defeated eighty thouſand of the enemy.

S. Were our ſucceſſes confined to Germany?

M. No; in Auguſt 1758, admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt reduced Louiſburgh, and took ſeveral French ſhips of the line. Fort du Queſne, Guadaloupe, the iſland of Goree, and Frontenac, all ſubmitted to the Engliſh arms. Expeditions were planned againſt the French iſlands in the Weſt Indies; and Quebec, the capital of French Canada. At the ſame time general Amherſt, then in America, received orders to reduce all Canada, and join general Wolfe, who commanded the forces employed againſt Quebec, on the banks of the river St. Laurence. Succeſs attended all theſe ſchemes; but the conqueſt of Quebec was dearly purchaſed by the death of general Wolfe, who, having received two wounds, expired immediately on hearing the welcome news that the French were put to flight. Our affairs in the Eaſt Indies were equally proſperous. The enemy's fleet was engaged near Fort St. David's, by ours, under admiral Pocock; when they loſt ſome ſhips, and a great number of men: and general Lally, commander of the French army, having laid ſiege to Madraſs, was obliged to raiſe it and retire with precipitation, leaving forty pieces of cannon behind him.

S. What did the French do in this exigence?

M. Pen-

M. Rendered deſperate by their ill ſucceſs, they planned a wild ſcheme of invading England, for which purpoſe they formed two fleets, one at Toulon, the other at Breſt; the firſt of which was attacked, and defeated, on the eighteenth of Auguſt 1759, by admiral Boſcawen; and, on the twentieth of November, the ſecond ſuffered the ſame fate from admiral Hawke. In the beginning of the next year, three ſloops belonging to the enemy, under the command of M. de Thurot, made a deſcent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, where he committed ſome trifling depredations; but on his return, he was met by three Engliſh ſhips, inferior to his own, commanded by captain Elliot; and an engagement enſued, in which Thurot was defeated and killed.

S. Did not France ſue for peace?

M. A negociation for this purpoſe was ſet on foot, but proved abortive, as did many other ſchemes for an accommodation; and preparations were making for carrying on the war, when George II. died ſuddenly. This event happened on the twenty-fifth of October 1760, in the ſeventy-ſeventh year of his age, and the thirty-fourth of his reign. His majeſty was ſucceeded by George III. eldeſt ſon to the late prince of Wales.

S. Did this event cauſe any alteration in affairs?

M. The war was continued with the utmoſt vigour, in order to bring it to a happy concluſion as ſoon as poſſible; and the ſame uninterrupted ſeries of ſucceſs attended our arms. In the Weſt Indies, the iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, with thoſe of Grenada, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note, ſurrendered to the valour of our troops. Belleiſle ſubmitted to his majeſty's ſhips and forces under admiral Keppel, and general Hodgſon, as did Pondicherry in the Eaſt Indies, to admiral Stevens and colonel Coote. It was now found expedient to declare war againſt Spain, who had entered into a compact with every branch of the Bourbon family. A fleet was ſent out under the earl of Albemarle and admiral Pococke, which gave a fatal blow to the power of Spain by the reduction of the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt port which his Catholic majeſty poſſeſſed in the Weſt Indies. This was followed by the ſurrender of Manilla, in the Eaſt Indies, to general Draper and admiral Corniſh. Several of their ſhips were

likewiſe taken, among which were the Hermione, and the Trinidad; the cargo of the former valued at a million ſterling; and that of the latter at three millions of dollars. France and Spain, having no other reſource left, now invaded Portugal, a kingdom that has been for a length of time under the protection of the Britiſh arms; and accordingly England aſſiſted that power both with her land and naval force. In the mean time war raged in Germany with unremitting fury: France was reduced to the utmoſt diſtreſs in her finances, and negociations for peace were once more renewed. After ſome time a ceſſaton of arms took place, and on the tenth of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majeſty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded, and acceded to by the king of Portugal. On the tenth of March the ratifications were exchanged at Paris, and on the twenty-ſecond, peace was ſolemnly proclaimed in London and Weſtminſter.

S. What were the principal heads of this treaty?

M. The French ceded to England the whole continent of North America on this ſide the river Miſſiſſippi, the town of New Orleans, and a ſmall tetritory round it. They abandoned their claims to the neutral iſlands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago; but excepted the iſlands of Grenada and the Grenadillas. They alſo reſtored the iſland of Minorca, and agreed to abandon their ſettlement at Senegal in Africa. On the other hand the Engliſh reſtored to Spain the iſland of Cuba, and the city of Manilla; and to France, the iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Marigalante, Deſirade, and St. Lucia.

Such were the heads of this treaty, and ſuch was the ſucceſs of this bloody war. A war in which the valour and prudence of the Engliſh ſhone with diſtinguiſhed luſtre, and convinced the world, that neither the intrepidity, the wiſdom, nor the virtue of their renowned anceſtors had ſuffered the leaſt diminution.

S. What were the principal events after this peace?

M. In the year 1765, an act was paſſed for impoſing a ſtamp duty on the Britiſh Colonies in North America. This act, when it reached America, was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. Aſſociations were formed, committees from every colony appointed

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to correſpond with each other on the general affairs of the whole, and deputies choſen from theſe committees to meet in Congreſs at New York. They aſſembled in that city in October 1765, and this was the firſt Congreſs held on the American continent.

S. Was not this act repealed?

M. Yes; the commotions in America occaſioned ſo great an alarm in England, that the king thought proper to diſmiſs his miniſters; and under the new miniſtry, at the head of whom was the marquis of Rockingham, an act was paſſed, in March 1766, for repealing the American ſtamp-act. This adminiſtration, however, did not continue long, and in the year 1767, an act was paſſed for laying certain duties on paper, glaſs, tea, &c. imported into America. About two years after, it was thought proper to repeal theſe duties excepting that on tea, which was laid extremely low, the object not being the amount of the duty but the eſtabliſhment of the right of the parliament of Great Britain to impoſe taxes in America. Another act was likewiſe ſoon after paſſed enabling the Eaſt India company to export their teas duty free to all places whatſoever; and ſeveral ſhips were accordingly freighted with teas for the colonies; three of which arrived in the port of Boſton in December 1773. The whole of the tea they brought, was, however, thrown into the ſea by armed multitudes, before it was landed; and the greater part of that carried to the other colonies was deſtroyed in the ſame manner.

The government of England now reſolved to employ force. They paſſed a bill for ſhutting up the port of Boſton, and another to deprive the province of Maſſachuſet's bay of its charter. The Americans on their part appointed a general congreſs, which was opened the 5th of Sept. 1774, and drew up a petition to the king, which, however, was contemptuouſly rejected.

At length the flames of this unhappy civil war burſt forth at Lexington and Concord in New England on the 19th of April 1775. General Gage ſent a body of troops to deſtroy ſome military ſtores that were at Concord. They ſucceeded in their deſign, but ſuffered more than the Americans who oppoſed them. Serious and active preparations were now made for war on both ſides; the town of Boſton in which General Gage and his troops were, was inveſted by

the American militia, and a body of provincial adventurers ſurpriſed the garriſons of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. The force of Great Britain in America was ſoon after augmented by the arrival at Boſton of the generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with conſiderable reinforcements.

After a variety of military operations and actions which cannot be here enumerated, General Howe in Auguſt 1776 took Long Iſland and New York, and in September 1777 gained conſiderable advantage over the American troops under the command of General Waſhington, in two actions of ſome importance, ſoon after which the city of Philadelphia ſurrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition the object of which was to invade the northern colonies by the way of Canada, was entirely defeated by the Americans. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He ſet out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men and an extraordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined by a conſiderable body of Indians. For ſome time he drove the Americans before him, and made himſelf maſter of Ticonderoga; but at length he encountered ſuch difficulties, and was ſo vigorouſly oppoſed by the Americans under Gates and Arnold, that after two ſevere actions in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne and his army of 5600 men were obliged to lay down their arms, Oct. 17, 1777.

S. Did not France and other nations engage in this war?

M. Yes; France ſent the Colonies conſiderable ſupplies of arms and ammunition; and ſeveral French officers entered into the American ſervice, among whom the moſt diſtinguiſhed was the Marquis de la Fayette, who afterwards acted ſo conſpicuous a part in the French revolution. At length, on the 6th of February 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris between the French king and the Thirteen United Colonies; and in this treaty it was declared that the object of it was "to maintain effectually the liberty, ſovereignty and independence, abſolute and unlimited of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was likewiſe brought to engage in the war againſt England; and ſoon after a rupture followed with Holland, in conſequence as

was

was alledged, of a clandeſtine commerce carried on between the ſubjects of the States-general, and the Americans. Hoſtilities were accordingly commenced againſt all theſe powers, though war was not declared againſt either. On the 27th of July 1778, a battle was fought off Breſt between the Engliſh fleet under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet under the command of count d'Orvilliers, but the action was not deciſive, no ſhip being taken on either ſide, though the French fleet retreated into the harbour of Breſt. A naval engagement likewiſe happened in the Eaſt Indies, between an Engliſh and French ſquadron, in which the former obliged the latter to retire, and on the 8th of October following Pondicherry ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain. In the courſe of the ſame year the iſland of St. Lucia in the Weſt Indies was taken from the French, but the latter made themſelves maſters of Dominica, and the following year took the iſlands of St. Vincent's and Grenada. Sir George Brydges Rodney defeated the Spaniſh fleet under Don Juan de Langara, and took ſeven ſhips, and ſoon after the commencement of the Dutch war, a very bloody engagement was fought between an Engliſh ſquadron of ſhips of war under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron under the command of admiral Zoutman off the Dogger-bank. The battle was fought with great obſtinacy, and it remained doubtful which of the contending ſquadrons gained the advantage. But the moſt ſignal victory obtained by the Britiſh navy during this war, was that gained by admiral Rodney over the French fleet under the command of Count de Graſſe on the 12th of April 1782, in which the French admiral himſelf was taken in the Ville de Paris of 110 guns with ſeveral other large ſhips of war. This victory was likewiſe of the utmoſt importance on another account, as it is not improbable that it ſaved the iſland of Jamaica.

S. What, in the mean time, were the principal events of the war on the continent of America; and how did it terminate?

M. The Americans, by the aſſiſtance of their new allies the French, increaſed daily in numbers, and improved in military ſkill. Under the command of their judicious and able general, Waſhington, they greatly harraſſed and diſtreſſed the royal forces; and at length on the 19th of October

1781,

1781, compelled Lord Cornwallis and the whole Britiſh army under his command, amounting to above 7000 men, to ſurrender priſoners of war by capitulation. The capture of this ſecond army, may be conſidered as the cloſing ſcene of the continental war in America; for the expence of carrying it on at ſo great a diſtance the conſequent increaſe of debt and taxes together with the diminution of trade, were evils of too great magnitude not to make an impreſſion even on the moſt prejudiced and obſtinate. Accordingly on the firſt of March 1782, after repeated ſtruggles in the houſe of commons, the houſe addreſſed the king requeſting him to put a ſtop to any farther proſecution of the American war; and a complete revolution in the miniſtry was effected on the 27th of the ſame month; the marquis of Rockingham being appointed firſt lord of the treaſury. Mr. Grenville was inveſted with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was directed to propoſe the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America, in the firſt inſtance, inſtead of making it the condition of a general treaty. The Marquis of Rockingham died on the 1ſt of July and the treaty of peace was finally concluded by Lord Shelburne, who ſucceeded the marquis as firſt lord of the treaſury.

S. What were the principal conditions of this treaty?

M. The king of Great Britain acknowledged the thirteen united ſtates of America to be free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates. By the treaty with France, Great Britain reſtored to France all her poſſeſſions before the war; the iſlands of Tobago, St. Lucia, St. Pierre and Miguelon, as alſo the iſland of Goree, with Pondicherry and other ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies. France, on her part, was to reſtore to Great Britain the iſlands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Chriſtophers, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis and Montſerrat. By the treaty with Spain, Great Britain ceded to that power Eaſt and Weſt Florida, and the iſland of Minorca which Spain had taken during the war: and in the treaty with the Dutch it was ſtipulated that Great Britain ſhould reſtore Trincomale. in the iſland of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it; and that the Dutch ſhould yield to us the town of Negapatnam with its dependencies.

S. What were the principal events after this peace?

M. Immediately

M. Immediately after it was concluded Lord Shelburne was obliged to reſign his power into the hands of the famous *coalition* adminiſtration, headed by Mr. Fox and Lord North, who were made ſecretaries of ſtate, and retained their authority till Mr. Fox brought in his bill for new-regulating the government of the Eaſt-India company, which bill being rejected in the houſe of lords, a royal meſſage was ſent on the 19th of December, 1783, to require the two ſecretaries to ſend their ſeals of office, and Mr. Pitt ſucceeded the duke of Portland as firſt lord of the treaſury, bringing in his friends into the reſpective departments; ſince which time he has retained the principal direction of public affairs as confidential ſervant of his majeſty.

In the beginning of the year 1786, Mr. Warren Haſtings, (late governor general of Bengal) was impeached by the houſe of commons of certain high crimes and miſdemeanors. His trial occupied a conſiderable portion of eight ſeſſions of parliament, and on the 25th of April, 1795, the lord chancellor pronounced him acquitted by the peers of all the charges. I mention this trial, principally, becauſe for length of continuance it exceeded any in the hiſtory of the world, having laſted ſeven years and three months.

In the autumn of 1788, the nation was ſuddenly alarmed by the reports of his majeſty being attacked by an unexpected and dangerous illneſs, which, though it remained for ſome time unexplained, was at laſt publicly known to have fallen upon the brain, and produced a temporary privation of reaſon. A bill was accordingly brought into parliament for ſettling the nature and powers of the regency, which ſhould guide the reins of government during the continuance of this ſuſpenſion of the royal faculties; and warm debates enſued between the two political parties, commonly called the miniſtry and oppoſition, one of which was in poſſeſſion, and the other in expectation of power. But before this bill was finally paſſed, the diſorder under which the king had ſuffered during three months, and the violence of which had hitherto appeared to baffle all medical ſkill and exertion gradually but radically ſubſided; and the ſovereign ſoon after reſumed the exerciſe of all his regal functions. The demonſtrations of national joy, on this occaſion, far exceeded any recorded in the

Engliſh

Engliſh annals, and were probably more real and unfeigned than ever were offered on a ſimilar occaſion.

In the year 1790, the nation was on the eve of a war with Spain, on account of ſome diſputes relative to Nootka Sound; which however, were adjuſted with the Spaniſh miniſtry without having recourſe to arms; and in the following year a large naval armament was prepared with a view to overawe Ruſſia, and induce her to conſent to a peace with the Porte on more moderate terms than ſhe had propoſed; but this meaſure being found to be extremely unpopular, was afterwards abandoned.

S. How did the preſent war commence?

M. The leaders of the French revolution having proceeded to depoſe the king, and declare France a republic, England began to look with a very jealous eye on their proceedings, and numerous aſſociations were formed throughout the kingdom againſt republican principles and theories; but when the convention had proceeded to put the king to death in January, 1793, M. Chauvelin, (the French ambaſſador) was informed by the Engliſh court that his character and functions, which had been ſuſpended by the depoſition of the king, had entirely terminated by his violent death; and that he had no longer any public character in this country, where his further reſidence was forbidden. On the 28th of January, Mr. Dundas preſented to the houſe of commons a meſſage from the king, expreſſive of the neceſſity of making a further augmentation of his forces by ſea and land, for maintaining the ſecurity and rights of his own dominions, for ſupporting his allies, and for oppoſing the views of aggrandiſement and ambition on the part of France. The motion made in conſequence by the miniſters was carried by a great majority, and thus the war began.

S. May the war be conſidered as hitherto ſucceſsful on the part of England?

M. England may certainly be conſidered as much more ſucceſsful in it than any of the other allied powers, for though, like them, ſhe cannot boaſt much of any triumphs on the continent; her naval victories have proved her the unrivalled miſtreſs of the ſeas. Theſe victories obtained by the matchleſs bravery and conduct of Lords Howe, St. Vincent, Duncan, and Nelſon, are too recent, and have been

been too generally proclaimed by the trump of fame to need to be recapitulated here. By them the fleets of our enemies have been nearly annihilated, the fears of an invaſion, with which we were threatened by the haughty republic of France, completely diſſipated and the claim of Great Britain, to be Queen of the Ocean and the Iſles, boldly aſſerted and ſucceſsfully maintained. Long may ſhe ſo continue, and when the ſtorm of war ſhall have paſſed away, may ſhe return with increaſing vigour to the cultivation of the peaceful arts, and preſerve to late poſterity her liberties, her ancient pride, undiminiſhed and unſullied, in deſpite at once of faction on the one hand, and an ignoble mercenary ſpirit on the other.

8. *Conſtitution of England.*

S. What is the conſtitution of England?

M. The Engliſh conſtitution is a compound, conſiſting of the principal parts of the monarchical government, blended with thoſe of the ariſtocratic and republican forms?

S. What is meant by a monarchical government?

M. When the government is lodged in the hands of a ſingle perſon.

S. In what does the ſovereignty conſiſt?

M. In the power of making laws; for wherever that power reſides, all others muſt be directed by it, be the appearance or outward form of adminiſtration what it may.

S. What is meant by a republican government?

M. That where the power of making laws reſides in the people.

S. Is there any other form of government?

M. Yes; an ariſtocracy, or where the power of making laws reſides in a certain number of nobles, or ſelect members of the ſtate.

S. Which of theſe is conſidered as the beſt form of government?

M. They have all their advantages and defects. In a republic, virtue or goodneſs of intention is more likely to be found, than in either of the others. Popular aſſemblies are indeed frequently fooliſh in their contrivance, and weak in their execution; but they generally mean to do the thing that is right and juſt, and have always a degree of

public

public ſpirit. In ariſtocracies, there is more wiſdom to be found than in the other forms of government, being compoſed, or at leaſt intended to be compoſed, of the moſt experienced citizens: but there is leſs honeſty than in a republic, and leſs ſtrength than in a monarchy. There is indeed no doubt but a monarchy is the moſt powerful of any, all the ſinews of government being knit together, and united in the hand of the prince: but then there is the moſt imminent danger of his employing that ſtrength to impolitic or oppreſſive purpoſes. Again, republics are uſually the beſt calculated to direct the end of a law: ariſtocracies to invent the means by which that end ſhall be attained; and monarchies to carry thoſe means into execution.

Theſe are the three ſpecies of government known to the ancients, who, in general, believed it was impoſſible for any other to ſubſiſt. Cicero indeed was of opinion, that a government might be formed by combining part of the monarchical with part of the republican form; but his opinion met with a very cold reception: and Tacitus treats this, and all other notions of forming a mixed government out of all the reſt, which ſhould enjoy all the advantages of the others, as the ſcheme of a viſionary politician, or the effect of a diſtempered brain. For, adds he, ſuch a government never can be formed; and even if effected, never can be either laſting or ſecure.

But happily for us of this iſland, the Britiſh conſtitution has long remained, and we truſt will continue, a ſtanding exception to the truth of this obſervation; for, as with us, the executive power of the laws is lodged in a ſingle perſon, they have all the advantage of ſtrength and diſpatch that are to be found in the moſt abſolute monarchy; as the legiſlature of the kingdom is truſted with three diſtinct powers, entirely independent of each other: firſt, the king; ſecondly, the lords ſpiritual and temporal; which is an ariſtocratical aſſembly of perſons, ſelected for their piety, their birth, their wiſdom, their valour, or their property; and, thirdly, the houſe of commons, freely choſen by the people, from among themſelves, which makes it a kind of republic, or democracy; as this aggregate body, actuated by different intereſts, compoſes the Britiſh parliament, and has the ſupreme diſpoſal of every thing, there can no inconvenience be attempted by either of the three branches, but will

will be withſtood by one of the other two. each branch being, by a negative power, ſufficient to repel any innovation which it ſhall think inexpedient or dangerous. Here then is lodged the ſovereignty of the britiſh conſtitution. and lodged as beneficially as is poſſible for ſociety: for in no other ſhape could we be ſo certain of finding the three great qualities of government ſo well and ſo happily united. If the ſupreme power were lodged in any one of the three branches ſeparately, we muſt be expoſed to all the inconveniences of either abſolute monarchy, ariſtocracy, or democracy; and ſo want two of the three principal ingredients of good policy; either virtue, wiſdom, or power. If it were lodged in any two of the branches, for inſtance, in the king and houſe of lords, our laws might be prudently made and well executed, but they might not always have the good of the people in view; if lodged in the king and commons, we ſhould want that circumſpection and mediatory caution, which the wiſdom of the peers is to afford; if the ſupreme right of legiſlature were lodged in the two houſes only, and the king had no negative on their proceedings, they might be tempted to encroach upon the royal prerogative, or perhaps to aboliſh the kingly office, and thereby weaken, if not totally deſtroy, the ſtrength of the executive power. But the conſtitutional government of this iſland is ſo admirably tempered and compounded, that nothing can endanger or hurt it, but by deſtroying the equilibrium of power between one branch of the legiſlature and the reſt. For ſhould it ever happen, that the independence of any of the three ſhould be loſt, or that it ſhould become ſubſervient to the views of either of the other two, there would ſoon be an end of our conſtitution: the legiſlature would be eſtranged from that which was originally ſet up by the general conſent, and fundamental act of the ſociety; by which means the people would be reduced to a ſtate of anarchy, with liberty to conſtitute to themſelves a new legiſlative power.

S. Are there any inſtances of this compound legiſlation for any length of time?

M. There are inſtances of it from almoſt the earlieſt ages, but it would carry me too far to trace it through the Saxon times: it will therefore be ſufficient to obſerve, that the prerogative of the crown was always circumſcribed by

by the rights and privileges of the people. William the Norman, and ſome who immediately ſucceeded him, being ambitious of becoming abſolute, ſtruggled againſt the balance of the government, and the nation being divided among the Normans, they met with little oppoſition at firſt. While the Normans were foreign plants they had no ſecurity againſt the natives; but as they grew up with the natives, and became rooted in their vaſt dominions, they embraced the national intereſt of the baronage, and grew as fierce in vindication of the ancient rights and privileges of their baronies, as if they had been always natives. From the violence of the kings on one ſide, in purſuit of arbitrary power, and the obſtinacy of the lords on the other, in defence of their liberties, aroſe thoſe civil wars, called the barons wars, which broke out about the middle of king John's reign.

S. What was the ſucceſs of theſe wars?

M. In order to anſwer your queſtion it will be neceſſary to obſerve, that the predeceſſors of John ſummoned thoſe lords only to parliament who were barons by their eſtates, or tenures: but that prince ſeeing the effects of their dominion, called barons to parliament by writ, who were no barons; by which means, in ſtriving to avoid the conſequence of the balance, he threw the government into diſorder; for at length the barons having vindicated their ancient authority, reſtored the parliament with all its rights and privileges.

The kings, however, began to find out a way of oppreſſing the powerful lords, by creatures of their own, who had no ſupport but their favour. But theſe barons, by writ, being *pro tempore*, and depending on the king's will, Richard II. created barons by letters patent, who were hereditary peers, and conferred honorary penſions on them and their heirs, for the maintenance of their dignities.

S. Had this artifice the deſired effect?

M. No; theſe lords having no conſiderable eſtates or tenures, by which they might influence their tenants and inferior dependants, proved of little or no ſupport to the throne: for the preſent, however, they did not hurt that ſo much as they did the king, the throne being as yet ſupported by the old barons; but theſe reſenting Richard the Second's prodigality to ſuch creatures, depoſed him, and never ceaſed

ceaſed dethroning their kings, according to their various intereſts, and the factions of the white and red roſes, till Henry the Seventh was advanced to the crown, more by their intereſt than his own right.

S. What method did Henry purſue?

M. He was ſenſible that a throne ſupported by a nobility, was not ſo hard to be aſcended as to be well eſtabliſhed: his ſecret jealouſy, therefore, left the nobility who brought him in, ſhould likewiſe turn him out, excited his endeavours to leſſen their power.

S. How did he effect this?

M. By means of the ſtatute for population, thoſe againſt retainers, and that for alienations, which unavoidably threw the balance of power into the hands of the people, who ſoon after overthrew not only the king but the throne itſelf.

S. What was the ſubſtance of theſe ſtatutes?

M. By the ſtatute of population, all houſes of huſbandry that were uſed with twenty acres of ground and upwards, were to be maintained and kept up for ever, with a competent portion of land laid to them, which was on no account to be ſevered; this law for keeping up the houſes neceſſarily enforced dwellers, and the proportion of land to be tilled and kept up, of neceſſity obliged the inhabitant to be a man of ſome ſubſtance: this act greatly affected the military and civil ſtrength of the kingdom; for it threw great part of the lands into the poſſeſſion of the yeomanry, or middling people, who became unlinked, and free from dependence on the lords, and ſoon became excellent infantry; but ſuch a one, over which the lords had ſo little power, that from this time they may be properly ſaid to have been diſarmed. As the lords loſt their infantry by theſe means, ſo by the ſtatute of retainers they loſt their cavalry and officers. Before this ſtatute it was the cuſtom of the nobility to retain younger brothers of good families in their ſervice, who were men of ſpirit, and well ſkilled in arms: but now they were not permitted to harbour ſuch a dangerous train, under heavy penalties.

Stripped of their power and grandeur, by the loſs of their retainers, the nobility ſoon grew weary of the country, and repaired to town, where they became courtiers. Their immenſe eſtates, which were more than ſufficient for the

the purpoſes of country hoſpitality, were ſoon found to be too narrow for the more refined pleaſures of the town, and the expences of court attendance: this put them upon the miſerable expedient of racking their tenants, and at length forced them to make ſale of their lands; they were enabled to part with their eſtates the eaſier by means of the ſtatute of alienations; for, before that time, men could neither ſell nor mortgage their lands, without paying a heavy fine for alienation. And from hence we may date the fall of the old barons, by tenure. But this act, which proved ſo pernicious to the nobility at that time, and to their poſterity after them, has been of infinite ſervice to the commons of England, who by theſe means purchaſed, and ſtill enjoy many eſtates, anciently belonging to the chief nobility. This has tended greatly to the enlargement of trade and commerce. The power of the peerage being thus weakened, vaſſalage was taken away, and Henry the Seventh's intereſt, which lay chiefly in the people, was greatly ſtrengthened.

S. Did his ſucceſſors purſue the ſame plan?

M. Moſt of them did. His ſon Henry VIII. conſiderably increaſed the power of the people, by diſſolving the abbies and other religious houſes; for by theſe means ſuch a vaſt acceſſion of property accrued to the commons, that the balance of the nation was apparently in the popular party.

The wiſe miniſtry who directed the councils of queen Elizabeth, quickly diſcovered which way the bias inclined, and they put her in the right method of correcting it. For, during her reign, inſtead of endeavouring to ſtrengthen herſelf againſt the commons, by foſtering favourites among the nobility, ſhe prudently paid her court to the people, and ruled abſolutely in the hearts of her ſubjects.

By theſe degrees the houſe of commons roſe to that power which rendered them formidable to their princes: James the Firſt ſoon experienced the inconvenience of the popular influence, and tortured his invention to reſtrain it. He practiſed every artifice to advance the prerogative; and when his parliaments did not pleaſe him, he diſſolved them at pleaſure; but notwithſtanding he boaſted of his policy, it ſerved only to lay the foundation of diſcontent between the crown and the people.

S. Did

S. Did he feel the effects of this ill-judged policy?

M. No; all remained quiet during his reign, though nothing was wanting to complete the deſtruction of the throne, but a favourable opportunity, which ſoon offered in the reign of his ſon and ſucceſſor Charles I.

S. What occaſioned the dreadful troubles in his reign?

M. A too great ſtiffneſs of opinion with regard to the power and prerogatives of the crown. This diſpoſition was encouraged by the clergy to his ruin: for truſting more to their logic than the rough arguments of his parliament, an irreparable breach was the conſequence. The power which the nobility formerly poſſeſſed over their numerous dependents, by reaſon of their vaſt tenures, being now loſt, they ſunk between the king and the commons, and the throne fell with them.

S. How was the conſtitution reſtored?

M. It was effected at laſt by the people; who having ſuffered ſeverely during the uſurpation of Cromwell, paſſed at once from one extreme to another; and accordingly, at the reſtoration of Charles II. they were diſpoſed to ſubmit to any encroachments. Under his reign the prerogative was ſtretched beyond its due bounds, and the exerciſe of arbitrary power met with little or no oppoſition. The horrors of the late civil wars were freſh in remembrance, and the people were forward to expreſs their ſubjection. By the large conceſſions they made to the crown, particularly by the act which veſted the militia ſolely in the king, he certainly had it in his power to have enſlaved the kingdom, had not his love of eaſe and pleaſure been happily greater than his ambition. The freedom of the Engliſh conſtitution was however eſſentially violated, and the patience of the people encouraged his ſucceſſor to attempt further uſurpations.

S. What new attempts were made on the conſtitution?

M. They were nothing leſs than attacks on the very foundation. James II. at once a dupe to bigotry and pride, attempted to ſet himſelf above the laws. But the people began to recover from their lethargy, and refuſed paſſively to ſubmit to thoſe haſty ſtrides, which he ſo openly made towards eſtabliſhing popery and tyranny. The ſtruggle between him and his people gave birth to the glorious revolution,

volution, which may, in one ſenſe, be conſidered as the æra of the Britiſh conſtitution.

S. In what manner was the conſtitution ſettled?

M. By ſeveral excellent regulations formed by the bill of rights, and the act of ſettlement which preſcribed the limits of prerogative, and aſcertained the rights and liberties of the ſubject. Till then our government, which politicians have commended as a maſter-piece of modern policy, was nothing more than a continual ſcene of contention between the king and the people, about prerogative and privilege. If the king gained the nobility to countenance his deſigns, he trampled on the liberties of the ſubject; if the nobility ſided with the popular party, they overthrew the king. But at the revolution this diſmal ſcene of civil diſcord was removed, and our conſtitution became a written compact between the king and his people.

9. *Power and Duty of a King of England.*

S. Is the crown of England hereditary?

M. By the common law and conſtitutional cuſtom, it is hereditary; but in a manner peculiar to itſelf; for the right of inheritance may, from time to time, be changed or limited by act of parliament; but under ſuch limitation the crown continues to be hereditary.

All regal governments muſt be either hereditary or elective; but as there is no inſtance in which the crown of England has been beſtowed by election, it muſt of conſequence be hereditary. An elective monarchy ſeems indeed to be moſt obvious, and beſt ſuited to all the rational principles of government, as well as to the freedom of human nature; and accordingly we find from hiſtory, that in the infancy and firſt rudiments of almoſt every ſtate, the leader, chief magiſtrate, or prince, hath uſually been elective. And if the individuals that compoſe that ſtate could always continue true to firſt principles, uninfluenced by paſſion or prejudice, unaſſailed by corruption, and unawed by violence, elective ſucceſſion were as much to be deſired in a kingdom, as in other inferior communities. The beſt, the wiſeſt, and the braveſt man, would then be ſure of receiving that crown which his endowments have merited; and the ſenſe of an unbiaſſed majority would be dutifully

dutifully acquieſced in by the few who were of different opinions. But hiſtory and obſervation will ſufficiently inform us, that, in the preſent ſtate of human nature, elections of every kind are too frequently brought about by influence, partiality, and artifice: and even where the caſe is otherwiſe, theſe practices will be often ſuſpected, and as conſtantly charged upon the ſucceſsful, by a diſappointed minority. This is an evil to which all ſocieties are liable; as well thoſe of a private and domeſtic kind, as the great community of the public, which regulates and includes the reſt. But in the former there is this advantage; that ſuch ſuſpicions, if falſe, proceed no farther than jealouſies and murmurs, which time will effectually ſuppreſs; and, if true, the injuſtice may be remedied by legal means, by an appeal to thoſe tribunals to which every member of ſociety has virtually engaged to ſubmit. Whereas in the great and independant ſociety, which every nation compoſes, there is no ſuperior to reſort to but the law of nature; no method to redreſs the infringement of that law, but the actual exertion of private force. As, therefore, between two nations complaining of mutual injuries, the quarrel can only be decided by the laws of arms; ſo in one and the ſame nation, when the fundamental principles of their common union are ſuppoſed to be invaded, and more eſpecially when the appointment of their chief magiſtrate is alledged to be unduely made, the only tribunal to which the complainants can appeal, is that of the god of battles. This hereditary ſucceſſion to the crown has prevented that periodical bloodſhed and miſery, which the hiſtory of antient Imperial Rome, and the more modern experience of Poland and Germany, have exhibited as the fatal conſequence of elective kingdoms.

S. But is this hereditary right indefeaſible?

M. It is not; for though the particular mode of inheritance in the crown correſponds in general with the feudal path of deſcents chalked out by the common law in the ſucceſſion of landed eſtates, yet there are one or two material exceptions. Like them, the crown will deſcend in a lineal direction to the iſſue of the reigning monarch, as it did from King John to Richard II. through a regular pedigree of ſix lineal generations. Becauſe in them the preference of males, to females, and the right of primogeniture

among the males were ſtrictly obſerved. Thus, Edward V. ſucceeded to the crown in preference to Richard, his younger brother, and Elizabeth, his elder ſiſter. Like them, on failure of the male line, it deſcends to the female iſſue. Thus, Mary I. ſucceeded to Edward VI. and the line of Margaret, queen of Scots, the daughter of Henry VII. ſucceeded on the failure of the line of Henry VIII. in his ſon. But, among the females, the crown deſcends by right of primogeniture to the eldeſt daughter only, and her iſſue; and not, as in common inheritance, to all the daughters at once; the evident neceſſity of a ſole ſucceſſion to the throne, having occaſioned the royal law of deſcents to depart from the common law in this reſpect; and therefore queen Mary, on the death of her brother, ſucceeded to the crown alone, and not in partnerſhip with her ſiſter Elizabeth. Again, the doctrine of repreſentation prevails in the deſcent of the crown, as it does in other inheritance; whereby the lineal deſcendants of any perſon deceaſed ſtand in the ſame place as their anceſtor, if living, would have done. Thus, Richard II. ſucceeded his grandfather Edward III. in right of his father, the Black Prince, to the excluſion of all his uncles, his grandfather's younger children. Laſtly, on failure of lineal deſcendants, the crown goes to the next collateral relation of the late king; provided they are lineally deſcended from the blood royal, that is, from that royal ſtock which originally acquired the crown. Thus, Henry I. ſucceeded to William II. John, to Richard I. and James I. to Elizabeth; being all derived from the Conqueror, who was then the only regal ſtock. But herein there is no objection, as in the caſe of common deſcents, to the ſucceſſion of a brother, an uncle, or other collateral relation of the half blood: that is, where the relationſhip proceeds not from the ſame pair of anceſtors but from a ſingle anceſtor only: as when two perſons are derived from the ſame father, and not from the ſame mother or the contrary, provided only, that the one anceſtor from whom both are deſcended, be that from whoſe veins the blood royal is communicated to each. Thus, Mary I. inherited to Edward VI. and Elizabeth inherited to Mary; all born by the ſame father, Henry VIII. but all by different mothers.

But though the crown of England be hereditary, yet the ſucceſſion may be ſet aſide by the authority of the ſupreme legiſlature of this kingdom, the king, and both houſes of parliament. By this authority the immediate heir may be excluded, and the inheritance veſted in another. The crown will, however, retain its deſcendible quality, and become hereditary in the wearer of it. And hence in our law the king is ſaid never to die, in his political capacity; though in common with other men, he is ſubject to mortality in his natural; becauſe, upon the natural death of the wearer, the king riſes in his ſucceſſor.

S. Is the crown of England ſubject to any limitation?

M. It is ſubject to the limitation of parliament; and upon this principle the famous bill of excluſion, which raiſed ſuch a ferment in the latter end of king Charles II's reign, was founded. The bill however miſcarried, king James II. ſucceeded to the throne of his anceſtors, and might have enjoyed it during the remainder of his life, had not his infatuated conduct brought on the revolution in 1688, when the crown was ſettled, firſt upon king William and queen Mary, king James's eldeſt daughter, for their joint lives; then upon the ſurvivor of them, and then upon the iſſue of queen Mary; upon failure of ſuch iſſue, it was limited to the princeſs Anne, king James's ſecond daughter, and her iſſue; and on failure of that to the iſſue of king William, who was grandſon to Charles I. But upon the impending extinction of all the proteſtant poſterity, the parliament ſettled the ſucceſſion on the princeſs Sophia, youngeſt daughter of Elizabeth, queen of Bohemia, daughter of James I. and the heirs of her body, being proteſtants. The princeſs Sophia dying before queen Anne, the crown deſcended on her ſon and heir, George I. in whoſe deſcendants it ſtill continues.

The councils belonging to the king are, firſt, the high court of parliament: ſecond, the peers of the realm: third, the judges of the courts of law, for law matters: and fourth, the privy council, generally called, "the council." by way of eminence.

S. What are the principal duties of a king of England?

M. To govern his people according to the laws; to execute juſtice in mercy, and to maintain the eſtabliſhed religion.

S. What are the prerogatives of the crown?

M. They are of two kinds, direct and incidental. The direct are ſuch poſitive ſubſtantial parts of the royal character, as are rooted in, and ſpring from the king's political perſon, conſidered merely by itſelf, without reference to any other intrinſic circumſtance; as the right of ſending ambaſſadors, of creating peers, of diſſolving the parliament, and of making war and peace. But ſuch prerogatives as are incidental, have a relation to ſomething elſe, diſtinct from the king's perſon; and are indeed the only exceptions in favour of the crown, to thoſe general rules which are eſtabliſhed for the reſt of the community, ſuch as that no coſts ſhall be recovered againſt the king; that the king can never be a joint tenant, and that his debt ſhall be preferred before a debt to any of his ſubjects.

10. *The Parliament of England.*

S. What is meant by the parliament of England?

M. The parliament is the great council of the nation, and conſiſts of the houſe of lords, or peers, and the houſe of commons. By the union there is an acceſſion of ſixteen peers of Scotland to the former, and forty-five commoners to the latter.

S. Were the two houſes of parliament conſtituted to anſwer different purpoſes?

M. They were; the houſe of lords to ſupport the rights of the crown, and the houſe of commons to preſerve the liberty of the ſubject.

S. What ends was the parliament eſtabliſhed to anſwer?

M. To preſerve the conſtitution, to ſupport the honour of the crown, and to maintain the privileges of the people: to raiſe ſuch ſubſidies as occaſion may require, make neceſſary laws, and redreſs all public grievances.

S. How is the ſettling of parliament appointed?

M. By royal proclamation, with the advice of the privy council, about forty days after the date of ſuch proclamation; upon which writs are iſſued by the lord chancellor to each ſpiritual and temporal lord, to appear at the time and place appointed; as likewiſe to all the ſheriffs, ordering them to ſummon the people to elect as many knights, citizens,

citizens, and burgeſſes, in their reſpective counties, as are to ſit in the houſe of commons.

S. What is the qualification of a knight of the ſhire?

M. Six hundred pounds a year in land, and all other members 300l.

S. How is the ſeſſion of parliament opened?

M. The king comes to the houſe of lords in his royal robes, which are put on in an adjacent room, with the crown on his head, and the ſword of ſtate borne before him. His majeſty is ſeated under a canopy in a chair of ſtate, raiſed on a throne. The temporal lords are in their ſcarlet robes of ſtate, every one according to his degree; and the ſpiritual lords in their epiſcopal habits.

At the wall, on the king's right hand, the two archbiſhops ſit by themſelves on a form. Below them, the biſhops of London Durham, and Wincheſter; all other biſhops take their ſeats according to the priority of their conſecration.

On the king's left hand, the lord treaſurer, and preſident, and lord privy ſeal, ſit upon forms, and the dukes above all, except the royal blood. Then the marquiſſes, and earls, according to their creation.

Croſs the room are the woolpacks, continued from an antient cuſtom; and the chancellor, or lord keeper, who is always ſpeaker of the houſe of lords, ſits on the firſt woolpack, before the throne, with the great ſeal and mace lying by him. Below are forms acroſs the room; firſt for the viſcounts, and next for the barons; they ſit in order according to their creation, except thoſe who take place higher by law.

The judges, maſters in chancery, and king's council, when called to give their advice in point of law, ſit on the other woolpacks. But they all ſtand till the king orders them to be ſeated. In his majeſty's abſence the judges ſit, though not covered, till the ſpeaker ſignifies to them the leave of the lords. The maſters in chancery, and the king's council always ſit uncovered.

The loweſt woolpack is for the clerk of the crown, and the clerk of the parliament, the firſt employed in all parliamentary writs and pardons, the laſt in keeping the records of parliament. He has two under clerks, who kneeling behind the woolpack, write upon it.

S. Are the commons preſent at the opening of the ſeſſion?

M. They are. When the king comes to parliament, the uſher of the black rod is commanded to call the houſe of commons to attend his majeſty immediately in the houſe of peers.

The commons being come, they ſtand without the bar, and the king commands them, by the lord chancellor, to chuſe one of their members for their ſpeaker, and to preſent him in a day or two. But this is done ſometimes by the lord chancellor, ſo authoriſed by his majeſty. The commons being returned to their houſe, chuſe a ſpeaker, who ought to be a perſon of great abilities and experience, eſpecially in parliamentary affairs; for the ſpeaker is the mouth of the houſe; no affairs of conſequence can be entered upon without him.

S. How is the ſpeaker choſen?

M. By the majority of votes, and two of the principal members immediately lead him to the ſpeaker's chair; where being ſeated, they return to their places.

S. What form is uſed in preſenting the ſpeaker to the king?

M. On the day appointed, his majeſty being come to the houſe of lords, the commons are called in, the new ſpeaker is introduced between two of their members; at the bar he is preſented to the king, where he modeſtly refuſes that high office, urging his incapacity, &c. which not being allowed of by the king, he makes a ſhort ſpeech to his majeſty, and generally concludes with petitioning, that the commons may, during their ſitting, have free acceſs to his majeſty, that they may have freedom of ſpeech in the houſe, and be free from arreſts. Theſe requeſts being granted, the king makes a ſpeech to both houſes of parliament concerning ſuch matters as he thinks neceſſary to lay before them: after which he leaves both houſes to their private debates, and the commons return to their own houſe, the mace being carried as uſual before the ſpeaker. After this his majeſty never comes to the parliament in ſtate, but to lay new affairs of importance before them, give his royal aſſent to bills paſt in both houſes, or to cloſe the ſeſſion: when there are extraordinary debates in the houſe of lords, he is ſometimes there incog. to hear them.

and

and every peer ſits and ſpeaks with the ſame freedom, as if the king was abſent.

S. How many members are ſufficient to make a houſe of commons?

M. Forty members, with the ſpeaker. They ſit promiſcuouſly upon forms, and none but the ſpeaker wears a robe, except the members of London, who at their firſt meeting appear in ſcarlet gowns, and ſit on the ſpeaker's right hand.

S. What is their time of ſitting?

M. In the forenoon; but upon urgent occaſions they ſit very late, and ſometimes all night. Before the parliament enters upon any buſineſs, the members of both houſes muſt take the oaths appointed by act of parliament.

S. What is the method of bringing a bill into parliament?

M. If the relief ſought by it is of a private nature, it is firſt neceſſary to prefer a petition, which muſt be preſented by a member, and uſually particularizes the grievance deſired to be remedied. The petition, if founded on facts, that may from their nature be diſputed, is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alledged, and accordingly report it to the houſe, and then leave is given to bring in the bill. In public affairs, the bill is brought in upon a motion being made, without any petition at all. Formerly all bills were drawn in the form of petitions, which were entered in the parliament rolls, with the king's anſwer ſubjoined; not in any ſettled form of words, but as the circumſtances of the caſe required; and at the end of each ſeſſion, the judges drew them into the form of a ſtatute, which was entered upon the ſtatute rolls. In the reign of Henry V. the ſtatutes, to prevent miſtakes and abuſes, were drawn up by the judges before the end of the parliament; and in the reign of Henry VI. bills in the form of acts, according to the modern cuſtom, were firſt introduced.

The perſons directed to bring in the bill, preſent it in a very competent time to the houſe, drawn out on paper, with a number of blanks, or void ſpaces, where any thing occurs that is dubious, or neceſſary to be ſettled by the parliament itſelf; being hardly any thing more than the ſkeleton of a bill. When a bill begins in the houſe of

lords, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the ſtate of the facts alledged, to ſee that all neceſſary parties conſent, and to ſettle all points of technical propriety. This draught of the bill is read a firſt time, and at a convenient diſtance a ſecond time; and after each reading the ſpeaker opens to the houſe the ſubſtance of the bill, and puts the queſtion, whether it ſhall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be originally oppoſed, as the bill itſelf may at either of the readings; and if the oppoſition ſucceeds, the bill muſt be dropped for that ſeſſion: as it muſt, alſo, if oppoſed with ſucceſs, in any of the ſubſequent ſtages.

S. What is meant by committing a bill?

M. The referring it to a committee; which is either ſettled by the houſe in matters of ſmall importance, or elſe upon a bill of conſequence, the houſe reſolves itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe.

S. What is a committee of the whole houſe?

M. A committee of the whole houſe is compoſed of every member; and to form it the ſpeaker quits the chair, another member being appointed chairman, and may ſit and debate as a private member. In theſe committees the bill is debated clauſe by clauſe, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and ſometimes the bill entirely new modelled.

S. What is the next ſtep to be taken?

M. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the houſe with ſuch amendments as the committee has made; and then the houſe reconſider the whole bill again, and the queſtion is repeatedly put upon every clauſe and amendment. When the houſe have agreed or diſagreed to the amendments of the committee, and ſometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engroſſed, or written in a ſtrong groſs hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment ſewed together.

S. Has the bill then gone through all the neceſſary forms?

M. No; it is read a third time, and amendments are ſometimes then made to it; and if a new clauſe be added, it is done by tacking a ſeparate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The ſpeaker then again opens the contents; and holding it up in his hands, puts the queſtion, whether the bill ſhall paſs. If this is agreed to, the

the title to it is then ſettled, which uſed to be a general one for all the acts paſſed during the whole ſeſſion, till in the fifth year of Henry VIII. when diſtinct titles were introduced for each chapter. After this one of the members is directed to carry it to the lords, and deſire their concurrence; who, attended by ſeveral more, carries it to the bar of the houſe of peers, and there delivers it to their ſpeaker, who comes down from his woolſack to receive it.

S. How do the peers proceed?

M. In the ſame manner with the members of the other houſe; and if the bill be rejected, no notice is taken, to prevent unbecoming altercations. And if it is agreed to, the lords ſend a meſſage by two maſters in chancery, importing that they have agreed to it. But if any amendments are made, ſuch amendments are ſent down with the bill to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons diſagree to the amendments, a conference uſually follows between members deputed from each houſe; who for the moſt part ſettle and adjuſt the difference; but if both houſes remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is ſent back by one of their members, with a meſſage to acquaint the lords therewith. The ſame forms are obſerved when the bill begins in the houſe of lords. But when an act of grace or pardon is paſſed, it is firſt ſigned by his majeſty, and then read once only in each of the houſes, without any new engroſſing or amendment. And when both houſes have done with any bill, it is always depoſited in the houſe of peers, to wait the royal aſſent; except in the caſe of a money bill, which after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is ſent back to the commons.

The royal aſſent may be given two ways: firſt, in perſon, when the king comes to the houſe of peers in his crown and royal robes, and ſending for the commons to the bar, the title of all the bills that have paſſed both houſes are read, and the king's anſwer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman French. Secondly, the king may alſo give his aſſent by letters patent under his great ſeal, ſigned with his hand, and notified in his abſence to both houſes aſſembled together in the upper houſe. And when the bill has received the royal aſſent by either

of theſe methods, it is then, and not before, a ſtatute or act of parliament.

An act thus made, is the exerciſe of the higheſt authority that this kingdom acknowledges upon earth. It hath power to bind every ſubject in the land, and the dominions thereunto belonging; nay, even the king himſelf, if particularly named therein. And it cannot be altered, amended, diſpenſed with, ſuſpended, or repealed, but in the ſame forms, and by the ſame authority of parliament; for it is a maxim in law, that it requires the ſame ſtrength to diſſolve, as to create an obligation. It was indeed formerly held, that the king might in many caſes diſpenſe with penal ſtatutes: but by an act paſſed in the reign of William and Mary, it is declared, that the ſuſpending, or diſpenſing with laws by regal authority, without the conſent of parliament, is illegal.

11. *Of the eccleſiaſtical Government of England.*

England is divided into two provinces, Canterbury and York; and each of theſe provinces is divided into ſeveral dioceſſes or biſhopricks, as in the following table.

The Province of Canterbury contains the following Dioceſſes and Counties.

Dioceſſes.	*Counties.*
Canterbury,	Kent, part.
London,	Eſſex, Middleſex, Hertfordſhire, part.
Wincheſter,	Southampton, Surry, Wight, iſle of, Guernſey, iſle of, Jerſey, iſle of,
Chicheſter,	Suſſex,
Saliſbury,	Wiltſhire, Berkſhire,
Exeter,	Devonſhire, Cornwall,

Dio-

Dioceſſes.	*Counties.*
Bath and Wells,	Somerſetſhire,
Glouceſter,	Glouceſterſhire,
Worceſter,	Worceſterſhire, Warwickſhire, part.
Hereford,	Herefordſhire, Shropſhire, part.
Litchfield and Coventry,	Staffordſhire, Derbyſhire, Warwickſhire, part.
Lincoln,	Shropſhire, part. Lincolnſhire, Leiceſterſhire, Huntingdonſhire, Bedfordſhire, Buckinghamſhire, Hertfordſhire, part.
Ely,	Cambridgeſhire, Ely, iſle of,
Norwich,	Norfolk, Suffolk,
Oxford,	Oxfordſhire,
Peterborough,	Northamptonſhire, Rutlandſhire,
Briſtol,	Dorſetſhire,
Rocheſter,	Kent, part.
St. David's,	Pembrokeſhire, Cardiganſhire, Caermarthenſhire, Radnorſhire, Glamorganſhire, part. Monmouthſhire, part. Herefordſhire, part.
Bangor,	Caernarvonſhire,
Landaff,	Angleſea, Merionethſhire, part. Montgomeryſhire, part.
St. Aſaph,	Denbighſhire, part. Flintſhire, Montgomeryſhire, part. Merionethſhire, part. Herefordſhire, part.

The Province of York contains the following Dioceſſes and Counties.

Dioceſſes.	*Counties.*
York,	Yorkſhire Nottinghamſhire,
Durham,	Durham, Northumberland,
Cheſter,	Cheſhire, Richmondſhire, Lancaſhire, Cumberland, part.
Carliſle,	Weſtmoreland, Cumberland, part.

The biſhops are overſeers of the clergy, and people committed to their charge, each in his own dioceſe.

They have in chief the power of ordination, though they always perform it jointly with ſome other prieſt; they alſo grant inſtitutions to benefices, and command induction to be given. Once in three years, each of them viſits his dioceſe, to inquire into offences againſt juſtice, piety, and ſobriety.

As the two archbiſhops have a ſuperintendance over all the churches of England, and in ſome meaſure over the biſhops, ſo the archbiſhop of Canterbury has a kind of ſupereminence over the archbiſhop of York; for he has power to ſummon him to a national ſynod, or convocation.

The archbiſhop of York is called *Primus Angliæ*, primate of England; but the archbiſhop of Canterbury is *Primas totius Angliæ*, primate of all England.

They are both ſtiled Moſt Reverend, in a ſuperlative manner, and honoured, as dukes are, with the title of Grace.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury takes place next to the royal family; nor does any, except the keeper of the Great Seal, ſtep between him and the biſhop of York.

Though the archbiſhop holds his place from the ſovereign, yet the royal writs to him are addreſſed Dei Gratia, Archiepiſcopo Cantuarienſi.

To him it properly belongs to crown the king, to conſecrate

ſecrate biſhops, and to call provincial ſynods, according to the king's writ directed to him for that purpoſe.

The biſhop of London is his provincial dean, the biſhop of Wincheſter his chancellor, and the biſhop of Rocheſter his chaplain. The archbiſhop of York has alſo many prerogatives, and both archbiſhops hold ſeveral courts.

Next to them the biſhops of London, Durham, and Wincheſter, take place, and all other biſhops according to their priority of conſecration.

S. Are the revenues of the biſhops large?

M. They are ſufficient to ſupport the dignity of the epiſcopal character. Some dioceſſes indeed have too ſmall an income for that purpoſe; but then the biſhops of thoſe ſees have ſome good living annexed. The biſhop of Rocheſter, being generally dean of Weſtminſter, has a much better revenue from his deanery than from his dioceſe, the latter being reckoned but five hundred pounds a year, but the deanery at leaſt eight hundred.

S. Are all the biſhops lords of parliament?

M. All, except the biſhop of Sodor and Man: they are called the lords ſpiritual; and as fathers and guardians to the church, they are ſtiled Fathers in God.

S. Are all the titles the ſame?

M. No; the two archbiſhops are ſtiled Moſt Reverend, and have the title of Grace; the inferior biſhops are called Right Reverend, and have the title of Lordſhip.

S. What are the eccleſiaſtical courts?

M. They are courts held by the biſhop of every dioceſe; and he iſſues writs in his own name, and not in the king's name, as is done in all other courts.

S. Is there no other difference between the eccleſiaſtical and civil courts?

M. Yes; in other courts there are ſeveral judges to each, a biſhop in his court is the ſole judge; he may even depute his authority to another, as to a ſuffragan biſhop, his chancellor or commiſſary, a privilege which none of the judges enjoy. Alſo for a trial of baſtardy or hereſy, the biſhop's certificate is ſufficient; and if a clergyman kills his biſhop or ordinary, it is by law parricide and petty treaſon.

S. Is there no difference between the authority of an archbiſhop and a ſuffragan in theſe courts?

M. There

M. There is; the biſhop's authority is confined within the bounds of his dioceſe; but that of the archbiſhop extends over all his province, he being ordinary to all the biſhops in that diſtrict. Accordingly the biſhop viſits his dioceſe only, whereas the archbiſhop viſits the whole province.

12. *Univerſities, and other Seats of Learning.*

S. How many univerſities are there in England?

M. Two; Oxford and Cambridge. The former conſiſts of twenty colleges and five halls; and the latter of twelve colleges and four halls.

S. What is the difference between a college and a hall?

M. There is no difference, but in the name, at the Univerſity of Cambridge; the privileges, &c. of both being the ſame; but at Oxford they are not. The halls in that Univerſity are nothing more than the remains of hotels or inns, the only academical houſes originally poſſeſſed by the ſtudents of Oxford. They are neither endowed nor incorporate; they are ſubject to their reſpective principals, whoſe ſalaries ariſe from the room-rents of the houſes. The principals are appointed by the chancellor of the Univerſity, that of Edmund Hall excepted, who is nominated by Queen's College, under the patronage of which Edmund Hall ſtill remains. The other halls were formerly dependant on particular colleges.

S. What other ſeminaries of learning are there in England?

M. Too many to be here enumerated; almoſt every town having an academy, where the arts and ſciences, at leaſt the rudiments of them, are taught. There are however three remarkable ſchools, that muſt not be omitted; Weſtminſter, Eton, and Wincheſter. Beſides theſe, there are two royal academies for the inſtruction of youth, one at Woolwich in Kent, and the other at Portſmouth in Hampſhire.

13. *Learning and learned Men.*

S. Is England famous for learning?

M. It is; and may be conſidered as the ſeat of ſcience and the muſes.

S. Have

S. Have the Engliſh cultivated the ſciences for any number of years?

M. They have; the great Alfred was at once the friend and patron of learning; nor have there ever ſince that early period been wanting a ſucceſſion of perſons who cultivated the ſciences. The veil of darkneſs and ignorance which was then drawn over Europe, concealed, indeed, for ſhort intervals of time, the rays of learning, and prevented their enlightening the kingdom; but they were nurſed in ſecret, and faint glimmerings of them were always viſible. Roger Bacon, a friar at Oxford, who lived in theſe dark ages, was a prodigy of literature: he wrote treatiſes on the flux and reflux of the ſea, upon coſmography, aſtronomy, optics, metallurgy, and on the impediments to knowledge. And it appears from his writings, that ſeveral diſcoveries, which have ſince adorned the characters of ſome modern writers, were known to this great man, who died in the year 1248. The two Univerſities were alſo founded during theſe dark ages; and produced a conſtant ſucceſſion of learned men.

Since the reformation the learned of England have been, in moſt branches of ſcience, ſuperior to thoſe of any other country, both in merit and number. Cardinal Wolſey not only revived claſſical learning in England, but alſo laid the foundation of the polite arts. The earls of Eſſex and Southampton, and Sir Philip Sidney, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, were not only learned themſelves, but alſo the patrons of genius, wherever they found it. Shakeſpeare, Spencer, Camden, and other writers, flouriſhed during this period.

Philoſophy now began to dawn; for before the reformation, when bigotry extended her leaden ſceptre over the Britiſh horizon, men were deterred from thinking. Thoſe who dared to conſult their own reaſon, and to aſſert the exiſtence of the antipodes, were condemned by the Roman pontiffs; who not contented to uſurp an unbounded authority over the actions of men, even extended their tyrannical power over the thinking faculty.

S. Was philoſophy totally unknown in England during this dark period?

M. It was not; a number of ingenious men ſtudied philoſophy in ſecret, and were contented with being learned themſelves,

themſelves, without attempting the dangerous experiment of enlightening the minds of others. By purſuing this prudent method, many errors were detected, and its profeſſors not expoſed to the cenſures of ignorant prieſts, or the tyrannical ſentences of eccleſiaſtical tribunals.

S. Who were the principal perſons that thus nurſed philoſophy during this night of ignorance and error?

M. The catalogue is too long to inſert here; nor is it neceſſary, as it would afford very little entertainment. It will therefore be ſufficient to obſerve, that, at the head of theſe illuſtrious perſonages is juſtly placed the immortal Sir Francis Bacon, whoſe works merit peruſal more than praiſe; and though generally eſteemed, are too little conſulted. If we conſider the juſt and extenſive views of this prodigious man; the infinite number of his objects; the nervouſneſs of his ſtyle; his ſublime imagery; and his rigorous exactneſs; we ſhall, perhaps, eſteem him the greateſt, the moſt univerſal, and moſt eloquent of philoſophers. Bacon, born in the night of ignorance, was ſoon ſenſible that true philoſophy did not exiſt, notwithſtanding many, undoubtedly, thought they excelled in it; for the more ignorant the age, the more confident it is of poſſeſſing all knowledge attainable by the human mind.

S. What method did this great genius take to eſtabliſh true philoſophy?

M. He began with reviewing all the objects of natural knowledge; he divided the ſciences into different branches, making the moſt exact enumeration of them; he examined what was then known of each; and drew up an immenſe catalogue of thoſe which yet remained to be diſcovered. This he publiſhed in his excellent work, "De Augmentis Scientiarum." In his "Novum Organum Scientiarum," he has extended and improved his views, and abundantly ſhewn the neceſſity of introducing, what was never thought of before, an experimental philoſophy. Deſpiſing all ſyſtems, he conſiders philoſophy as a ſcience, whoſe ſole tendency is to increaſe our knowledge and happineſs; confines it to the ſtudy of uſeful things, and often recommends the ſtudy of nature. His other philoſophical writings are built on the ſame foundation; and their very titles declare their author to be a man of genius and extenſive knowledge. He there collects facts,

compares

compares experiments, and hints many others to be tried, at the ſame time inviting philoſophers to improve the arts, which he eſteems the moſt eſſential part of human knowledge. He communicates, with a noble ſimplicity, his thoughts and conjectures, relating to objects which merit our attention. Natural philoſophy, morality, politics, and œconomics, were all perfectly underſtood by this ſublime and penetrating genius; ſo that it is difficult to ſay, whether we ought moſt to admire the richneſs he gives to all the ſubjects he treats of, or the dignity with which he treats them. His philoſophical writings may be compared to the medical performances of Hippocrates, and, doubtleſs, would be as much ſtudied and admired, if men were as ſolicitous of improving their knowledge, as of preſerving their health.

S. Was the method he propoſed purſued by others?

M. It was; the Hon. Mr. Robert Boyle followed the ſteps of the great Bacon, and made an amazing number of experiments, in order to eſtabliſh philoſophy on a ſolid foundation. The Royal Society was eſtabliſhed about the ſame time, and all the members of that learned body purſued the ſame plan. Every day now gave birth to ſome new diſcovery; or furniſhed matter for confuting ſome ancient error. Men now began to think for themſelves, and to ſpeak their real ſentiments. They deduced uſeful truths from the experiments that were continually making, and rationally accounted for many of the phænomena of nature.

While philoſophy was thus in its dawn, the immortal Sir Iſaac Newton appeared, who gave it ſuch a form, as is likely to continue. This amazing genius was ſatisfied that it was time to baniſh from natural philoſophy all vague hypotheſes and conjectures, or, at leaſt, not to lay any ſtreſs upon them, and that this ſcience ſhould be entirely ſubjected to experiment and geometry. Perhaps it was with this view, that he began by inventing the method of fluxions and infinite ſeries, whoſe uſe, in geometry, is very extenſive, but of ſtill greater advantage in determining the complicated effects obſerved in nature; where every thing ſeems to be performed by ſpecies of infinite progreſſions.

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The experiments made upon bodies falling by their own gravity, led this great philoſopher to diſcover the force which retains the planets in their orbits. He at once ſhewed us how to diſtinguiſh the cauſes of their motions, and to calculate them with an exactneſs, which could hardly have been expected from the joint labour of ages. He formed a ſyſtem of optics entirely new, and ſhewed mankind the nature of the rays of light, by decompounding them. All I could ſay in praiſe of this great man, would fall ſhort of the univerſal applauſe at preſent given to his numberleſs diſcoveries, and to his genius, which was at once extenſive, penetrating, and profound. He certainly merits our higheſt acknowledgments for enriching philoſophy with an infinite number of real acquiſitions; and in particular for his cautions to keep philoſophy within juſt bounds. Sir Iſaac's theory of the world is now ſo generally received, that ſome even pretend to diſpute with him the honour of the diſcovery: but it is not uncommon to begin with charging errors on great men, and finiſh with calling them plagiaries.

S. Did not many other men of genius flouriſh about the ſame time.

M. Yes; the reign of Charles II. notwithſtanding the bad taſte of the court has been conſidered by ſome as the Auguſtan age in England, and is dignified by the names of Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotſon, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The incomparable Paradiſe Loſt, by Milton, was publiſhed in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit; though it was far from being diſregarded ſo much as has been commonly apprehended. The pulpit aſſumed more majeſty, a better ſtyle, and truer energy, than it had ever before exhibited. Claſſic literature again flouriſhed, and Sir Chriſtopher Wren introduced a more general regularity than was ever before known in architecture. This great man was not merely diſtinguiſhed by his ſkill as an architect. His knowledge was very extenſive; and his diſcoveries in philoſophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the newly eſtabliſhed Royal Society.

In the reign of William III. flouriſhed the illuſtrious Locke, who firſt reſcued that ſpecies of philoſophical diſquiſition

quiſition which is uſually called metaphyſics from the abſurd jargon of the ſchools, and placed it on the baſis of common ſenſe. His Eſſay on the Human Underſtanding will continue to be read and admired as long as men ſhall prefer knowledge to ignorance, and diſpaſſionate inquiry to prejudice and ſuperſtition.

The moſt uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts received under the auſpices of queen Anne, and which put her court at leaſt on a footing with that of Louis XIV. in its moſt ſplendid days. Addiſon, Prior. Pope, Swift, Bolingbroke. Shafteſbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve. Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verſe and proſe, were the ornaments of this age. Natural and moral philoſophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political diſputes contributed to the advancement of learning by the unbounded liberty which the laws of England allow in ſpeculative matters, and which has been found highly advantageous in the promotion of true and valuable knowledge.

The miniſters of George I. were the patrons of learning, and ſome of them were no mean proficients themſelves. George II. was himſelf no Mecænas; yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the number of learned and ingenious men it produced. A great progreſs has likewiſe been made in the polite arts in the preſent reign. The Royal Academy has been inſtituted; ſome very able artiſts have ariſen, and the annual public exhibitions have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a ſpirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general.

14. *Trade and Commerce, both foreign and domeſtic.*

S. How is the domeſtic, or home trade carried on?

M. Both by land and water. All kinds of proviſions, and ſeveral other ſpecies of commodities, are conveyed either in waggons or coaches; or by water, in veſſels by ſea, or in large barges and boats upon ſuch rivers and canals as are navagable; both theſe methods employ a vaſt number of hands.

London is, in a manner, the center of all trade; and hence ariſes that vaſt concourſe of carts and waggons by land,

land, and of ſhips and barges by water. In this great metropolis there are at leaſt an hundred and fifty inns for the reception of waggons, which return at ſtated times, with London commodities to exchange for thoſe they bring out of the country.

S. Can any account be given of the numbers of perſons, ſhipping, &c. employed in the Engliſh trade?

M. Nothing accurate can be ſaid, but we may form ſome gueſs by the trade which alone is carried on in the ſea-coal; it employing conſtantly a thouſand large veſſels between London and Newcaſtle. This trade anſwers two capital purpoſes; for it not only ſupplies the capital with the uſeful article of coal, but is a nurſery for thouſands of failors, who generally prove the beſt in the Britiſh navy.

S. Do not the manufactures, and other works carried on in this country, require a great many hands?

M. Certainly; vaſt numbers of people are employed in ſeveral kinds of manufactures, both in town and country. The cities of London and Weſtminſter abound with them, as well as many trading towns in different counties.

S. What is the difference between foreign and domeſtic trade?

M. The difference between home trade and that abroad, conſiſts chiefly in the circulation of money by means of the former, whereas the latter is principally carried on by way of barter, or exchange; notwithſtanding which, it is eſteemed of much greater importance to the nation: for though England being provided with all the conveniences of life, could ſubſiſt without the aſſiſtance of any other country, yet as foreign trade is very advantageous, employs a multitude of artiſts and labouring poor, and is a manifeſt improvement to all manufacturers in general; ſo it is the ſureſt and moſt effectual method at once to enrich the nation, ſtrengthen the ſtate, and render it a terror to all its enemies.

S. To what parts do the Engliſh trade?

M. To almoſt every part of the habitable world; nor do the people of any nation equal them in the extenſive commerce they carry on in the productions of their own country. This enables them to build a vaſt number of ſhips, multiplies the number of ſailors, proves a great addition to their riches, and ſupplies the inhabitants with every

every thing the world can afford, either to delight the eye, or pleaſe the palate. By this the government is enabled not only to ſupport its friends, but humble its enemies; and though there is in England a much greater conſumption of foreign commodities, than in any other nation, yet by the quality, as well as quantity of their own productions, they not only keep the balance of trade even, but become very conſiderable gainers by their exportation of ſuch commodities to other countries, as they cannot conſume themſelves. Formerly, indeed, our trade with France was very detrimental to the nation, when, even in times of peace, that nation laid exorbitant cuſtoms upon our commodities, and we, on the other hand, ſuffered theirs to be imported on very eaſy terms; ſo that by a fair computation, we annually imported goods from France to the amount of two millions and a half, whilſt the commodities we exported thither were not worth above one million: thus we paid to France, annually, about a million and a half, for ſuch goods as we had very little occaſion for.

S. What are the principal commodities of their own growth and manufactures, exported by the Engliſh.

M. A prodigious variety; but the principal is their wool, after it is manufactured into cloths, both broad and narrow, ſtuffs, ſerges, bays, kerſeys, frize, flannel, &c. to the annual amount of two millions ſterling at leaſt: their tin, lead, copper, and coal, which amount to half a million more: the houſhold-ſtuff, cloathing, and other things, whch are annually ſent to the Weſt Indies only, are computed at two hundred thouſand pounds; they likewiſe export great quantities of iron manufactured into cannon, bombs, carcaſſes, &c. to a conſiderable value: alſo, abundance of corn, and a prodigious multitude of herrings, pilchards, and ſalmon, all caught, in amazing quantities upon their own coaſt: leather, hops, beer and ale, allum, ſaffron, &c. beſides theſe, they export vaſt quantities of ſatins, damaſks, velvets, pluſhes, and a great variety of other manufactures to an immenſe value. And as the Engliſh, by no means fall ſhort of other trading nations in uſeful inventions and improvements, ſo they reap no inconſiderable advantage from them: clocks and watches, locks, barometers, thermometers, teleſcopes, microſcopes, and a great variety of all ſorts of mathematical inſtruments,

ments, are all made in the utmoſt perfection. The art of making and poliſhing glaſs, is likewiſe ſo improved here, as not to be excelled even by the Venetians themſelves; and the earthen ware, at preſent, falls but very little ſhort of that made in Holland. Among other uſeful inventions, which would require an infinite deal of time to enumerate, the Engliſh have diſcovered a method of poliſhing the inſide of large iron guns.

S. In what does our trade with Ireland principally conſiſt?

M. In a great variety of articles; but chiefly in the importation of wool, beef, hides, tallow, butter, and fiſh, from that iſland. This is of conſiderable advantage to both kingdoms, and has been computed at half a million per annum.

S. Is our trade with America and the Weſt Indies very advantageous?

M. It is: for notwithſtanding the prodigious conſumption which the Engliſh make of the productions of America, principally conſiſting of ſugar, indigo, cocoa-nuts, rum, tobacco, &c. they have as much to ſpare for other parts of Europe, as amount to half a million per annum.

S How is the prodigious foreign trade carried on by the Engliſh regulated?

M. The foreign commerce of England is chiefly regulated at London, by ſeveral ſocieties, or companies of merchants, who are impowered by their reſpective charters granted by the crown, to make, from time to time, ſuch regulations for the improvement of their reſpective trades, as to them, upon mature deliberation, ſeem moſt convenient. By thoſe ſeveral ſocieties a great number of poor are employed, ſeveral veſſels are built, and thouſands of mariners kept in continual pay.

S. How many of theſe ſocieties or companies are there?

M. Six, that are incorporated.

S. What are they called?

M. The Eaſt India company; the Levant company; the merchant adventurers; the Ruſſia company; the Eaſt-land company; and the royal African company.

S. Which is eſteemed the principal of theſe ſocieties?

M. The Eaſt India company; their trade being prodi-

gioufly

giouſly extenſive. They have one factory at Iſpahan, and another at Gambroon in Perſia. They have likewiſe ſeveral in India, particularly at Fort St. George, and Fort St. David; in the iſland of Sumatra; Forts York and Achim; on the coaſts of Coromandel, Rhajama in Malabar, and the iſland of Bombay, &c. Callicut, Surat, and Pettipolee; Amoy, Canton, and Tonquin, in China.

S. What is the Levant company?

M. The Levant, or Turkey company, who were firſt incorporated by queen Elizabeth, and to whoſe privileges king James I. granted ſeveral acts for indulgence, are at preſent, by virtue of a late act of parliament, free and open traders: ſo that any perſon may now trade to that part of the world, without any hindrance or moleſtation.

S. What are the merchant adventurers?

M. The ſociety of merchant-adventurers was the firſt company eſtabliſhed in England, and was founded by king Edward I for the exportation of wool. Since that time, however they have been deprived of their principal privileges, and at preſent they are only ſuffered to export cloths, and other ſpecies of the woollen manufacture.

S. When was the Ruſſian company eſtabliſhed?

M. The Ruſſian company was firſt eſtabliſhed in the reign of Edward VI. the Engliſh having, about that time diſcovered a paſſage to Archangel in the Northern Ocean, which had been till then looked upon as impracticable. As this happy diſcovery proved very beneficial to the Czar of Muſcovy, and his dominions, he granted ſeveral very conſiderable privileges to this ſociety but on ſome diſguſt conceived againſt them by one of his ſucceſſors, their privileges were in a great meaſure aboliſhed, and the Engliſh placed on the ſame footing with other nations. Since that time however this company has been prodigiouſly encouraged, is in a very flouriſhing condition, and has at preſent the liberty of the Perſian trade carried on through the Ruſſian territories.

S. What is the Eaſt land company?

M. A ſociety who trade principally with Denmark, Sweden, and Poland.

S. When was the royal African company eſtabliſhed?

M. The royal African company was founded by king Charles II. who gave them full power and authority to trade

trade all over the weſtern parts of Africa, from Sallee in Barbary, as far as the Cape of Good Hope, prohibiting all his other ſubjects to interfere in that trade on any pretence whatever. This company built ſeveral forts upon that coaſt, in order to ſecure their commerce; but the profits being much ſmaller than was expected, the government lately paid them a very conſiderable ſum for their ſtores, &c. and laid the trade open.

Beſides the ſeveral bodies corporate above-mentioned, there are the Hamburgh, Greenland, and the Hudſon's Bay companies: the laſt of which carries on a very conſiderable trade with the Indians, in the northern extremity of America.

S. Can you tell the difference between the value of the imports and exports of England?

M. According to the beſt computation, it appears that in the year 1797, the exports, including foreign merchandize, amounted to twenty-eight millions. and the imports to twenty-one: if this calculation be juſt, England gains annually above ſeven millions ſterling.

15. *Revenues of England.*

S. Whence do the revenues of England ariſe?

M. From two ſources, diſtinguiſhed by the epithets ordinary, and extraordinary.

S. What are the ordinary revenues?

M. The monies ariſing from the crown lands; hereditary exciſe; annual ſums from the duty on wine licences; the royal foreſts; and the courts of juſtice. Theſe form the king's hereditary revenues, in lieu of all which 900,cool. per annum, is now granted for the ſupport of what is called his civil liſt.

S. What are the extraordinary revenues?

M. The ſupplies granted by parliament; as the land-tax; the malt-tax; the cuſtoms; the exciſe duty; the ſalt duty; the poſt-office; the ſtamp duty; the duty on houſes and windows, and thoſe called the aſſeſſed taxes; the duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs; and the duty on offices and penſions. The net produce of theſe, together with the duty on ſalt, and the revenue from the poſt-office for the year 1797, is ſtated by the ſelect Committee of

Finance to have been 18,720,093 pounds, and the whole of the permanent revenue 20,508,000 pounds.

S. How is this money applied?

M. Principally to the payment of the intereſt of the National Debt, which, at Midſummer, 1798, amounted, including the debt then unfunded, to above 486 millions.

S. Is it not, then, neceſſary, in time of war, to raiſe a ſtill larger ſum?

M. Yes; the total expenditure of the year 1797, for the intereſt of the public debt, the civil liſt, the army, navy, foreign loans and remittances, penſions, bounties, extraordinary and ſecret ſervices, &c. amounted, according to the report of the ſame committee, to £52,105,603. 18*s.* 2*d*¾.

S. This ſum greatly exceeds what you have ſtated the revenue to be: how is the ſurplus raiſed?

M. It has always hitherto been raiſed by loan, that is money lent by individuals to government for a certain intereſt; to provide for the payment of which new taxes are impoſed. It is in conſequence of this practice which is conſtantly reſorted to in time of war, that the national debt has increaſed to ſo enormous a ſum, and the permanent taxes become ſo numerous and heavy, as to be ſcarcely ſupportable by the lower and middling claſſes. To check, therefore, in ſome meaſure, the too rapid accumulation of theſe, a part of the ſupplies requiſite for the year 1798, was raiſed within the year. A voluntary ſubſcription was ſet on foot for the ſervice of government, which produced about a million and a half; and the taxes, called the aſſeſſed taxes, were trebled, and in ſome inſtances quadrupled, with allowance of relief in certain caſes: theſe produced about five millions. In the preſent year an act has paſſed for taking a tenth of all income upwards of £200. per annum, with a tax according to a certain ſcale on all income from £200. to £60. per annum. The expected produce of this tax is eſtimated at ten millions; ſtill however, a conſiderable loan will be neceſſary, the public debt muſt accumulate, and the permanent taxes continue to increaſe.

16. *Forces of England.*

S. In what does the force of England conſiſt?

M. It conſiſts of three parts; the army, the militia, and the navy.

S. Is the army very conſiderable?

M. It is; the number in time of peace, amounting to near 40,000 men; but in time of war, above 150,000 have been kept in Britiſh pay.

S. Of how many men do the Engliſh militia conſiſt?

M. It conſiſts of about 50,000 men, to which, in the preſent war, has been added a ſupplementary militia. and a great number of regiments, called fencible regiments, have been raiſed. The whole of the Britiſh forces in the beginning of the year 1799, amounted to 39 regiments of cavalry and 121 infantry, of regular troops; fencibles, 30 of cavalry and 43 of infantry, and 110 regiments of militia; excluſive of the artillery and engineers, the proviſional cavalry not in actual ſervice, and of about 275 corps of volunteer cavalry, and nearly 500 corps of volunteer infantry.

S. Is not the Engliſh navy very powerful?

M. It is: it has ſhewn itſelf, eſpecially in the preſent war, able to cope with, and, indeed, nearly to annihilate all the fleets of the principal maritime powers of Europe.

S. Of how many ſhips does the Engliſh navy conſiſt at preſent?

M. It conſiſts of 145 ſhips of the line, 21 of fifty guns, 183 frigates, and 291 other ſhips of war, excluſive of receiving ſhips, ſhips in ordinary, and hired armed veſſels chiefly employed in protecting the coaſting trade.

S. How many ſeamen are kept in pay for manning this powerful navy?

M. The number voted for the laſt and preſent years is 120,000, but in time of peace only between twelve and fifteen thouſand are employed.

17. *Coins, Antiquities, and Curioſities.*

S. What are the coins of England?

M. They conſiſt of gold, ſilver, and copper. The gold coins are guineas, halves, and quarters; the ſilver, crowns, half-crowns, ſhillings, ſixpences, &c. down to a penny; and the copper money of half-pence, and farthings; to which have been lately added twopenny and penny pieces.

S. What are the principal antiquities of England?

M. They

M. They are of three kinds, Britiſh, Roman, and Saxon.

S. Are there any antiquities of the antient Britons now remaining in England?

M. Yes; a great variety. They conſiſt chiefly in circles of ſtones, and were probably the places of ſacred worſhip, where ſacrifices were offered.

S. Where are theſe remains of antiquity found?

M. In many of the counties of England; particularly in Cumberland, Oxfordſhire, Wiltſhire, Devonſhire, and Cornwall; but the moſt remarkable is called Stonehenge, and ſituated on Saliſbury-plain, in Wiltſhire. It is a regular ſtructure, conſiſting of two circles, and two ovals, compoſed in the following manner. The upright ſtones are placed at three feet and a half diſtance from one another, and connected at the top by overthwart ſtones with tenons fitted to mortiſes cut in the uprights, in order to keep them firm in their proper poſition. Some of theſe ſtones are of an enormous ſize, meaſuring two yards in breadth, one in thickneſs, and above ſeven feet in height; but others are leſs, in the ſame proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with the chiſſel, but the croſs-pieces, or overthwart ſtones, are quite plain. The largeſt, or outermoſt circle is near 180 feet in diameter; between the circumference of which, and that of the next, there is a ſpacious walk, which has a ſurpriſing and awful effect on the beholders.

S. Can any account be given of the origin of this remarkable ſtructure.

M. Nothing certain. It is ſuppoſed to have been erected by the antient Druids, and to have been the principal place of worſhip in England; perhaps the place where the arch druid reſided, and where he commonly officiated in perſon.

S. Are there many Roman antiquities ſtill ſubſiſting in England?

M. There are; they conſiſt of a vaſt variety of particulars; as coins, fibulas, altars, teſſellated pavements, camps, military ways, fortifications, walls, buildings, baths, &c. but the moſt amazing monument of the Roman power in England, is the prætenture, or wall of Severus, generally called the Picts wall. It runs through Northumberland

and Cumberland, from Tinmouth, to Solway Frith; and was about 80 miles in length.

S. What induced the Romans to build this wall?

M. To prevent the Picts and Scots, a barbarous people inhabiting Scotland, from making incurſions into the Roman territories in Britain.

S. Are the Saxon antiquities numerous in England?

M. Yes; they conſiſt chiefly of eccleſiaſtical edifices, and places of ſtrength, camps, &c.

S. What curioſities are there in England?

M. An amazing quantity; their very names would fill a large volume, and are either natural or artificial. The natural conſiſt chiefly of medicinal waters, baths, petrifying, burning, and reciprocating ſprings; caverns, precipices, &c. &c. The artificial curioſities are of ſo miſcellaneous a nature, that it is no eaſy taſk to reduce them to their proper heads, and even ſuch an abſtract would require much more room than can be ſpared in theſe dialogues.

DIALOGUE VI.

The Principality of Wales.

S. IS not the principality of Wales included in England?

M. It is; and I have accordingly given its diviſions, &c. among thoſe of England. I however thought it would not be amiſs to ſay ſomething more of it in a particular article.

S. When was Wales united to England?

M. It was totally reduced by Edward I. and the inhabitants obliged to pay tribute; but the union was not completed till the twenty-ſeventh year of Henry VIII. when the government was modelled according to the Engliſh form, and the Welſh have ever ſince ſent members to the Britiſh parliament. Circuits were alſo eſtabliſhed for the adminiſtration of juſtice.

1. *Mountains.*

S. Are there not a great number of mountains in Wales?

M. There

M. There are; and it was principally from the mountainous ſituation of the country, that the Welſh were enabled to make ſo long and noble a reſiſtence againſt the Roman, Saxon, and Norman Powers. Their laſt ſtruggle for liberty was in the mountains of Snowdon, where they defended themſelves, for a very conſiderable time, againſt the whole Engliſh army, commanded by Edward I. in perſon. I have mentioned the names of the principal mountains in Wales, among thoſe of England.

2. *Soil and Productions.*

S. What is the ſoil of Wales?

M. Like that of all other countries, different, in different parts of the principality. In many parts it is very mountainous; but contains a great number of fruitful vallies, where very good crops of wheat, barley, rye, and other corn, are annually produced. Pembrokeſhire is conſidered as the garden of Wales; and indeed produces large quantities of excellent corn. Some parts, eſpecially near the banks of the rivers, produce good paſtures; and in them great numbers of black cattle are fatted. Theſe are indeed much ſmaller than the Engliſh, but excellent beef; and their cows are remarkable for giving large quantities of milk. Their horſes are alſo ſmall, but will endure prodigious fatigue. Great numbers of goats are fed upon the mountains, and among the rocks, where hardly any other creature can ſubſiſt.

3. *Number of Inhabitants, their Manners, and Cuſtoms.*

S. Is Wales very full of people?

M. Not remarkably ſo; the whole principality is thought to contain 300,000 ſouls; which, conſidering the vaſt number of mountains, and waſte grounds, is a very conſiderable number.

S. Are the Welſh ſtill tenacious of their liberties?

M. They are; and, if poſſible, more ſo than the Engliſh themſelves. They are alſo more iraſcible; but their anger ſoon evaporates, and they are remarkable for their fidelity and attachment. The old hoſpitality of the Engliſh is ſtill preſerved in many parts of Wales.

S. Do not the Welſh value themſelves upon their antiquity?

M. They do; and many of them trace their genealogy from the ancient Britons. They have alſo ſeveral old manuſcripts, ſome of which, eſpecially thoſe relating to eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, are older and better atteſted than the Anglo-Saxon.

S. Are they not very tenacious of their ancient cuſtoms?

M. They are; the hoſpitality of their anceſtors, which is ſtill kept up, is a proof of it; nor was there hardly a cuſtom uſed by their forefathers, but ſome remains of it at leaſt may be now found among the preſent inhabitants.

4. *Language and Religion.*

S. What is the language ſpoken among the common people in Wales?

M. It is generally ſuppoſed to be that uſed by the ancient Britons; and has a near affinity with the Celtic, or language of ancient Gaul.

M. Is it remarkable either for its copiouſneſs, or energy?

M. It is ſufficiently copious, and remarkable for its pathetic and deſcriptive powers.

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of Wales?

M. That of the church of England; but the inhabitants are in many places ſo firmly attached to the old ceremonies of their anceſtors, that they ſtill retain ſeveral of the ſuperſtitious practices of the Romiſh church.

5. *Manufactures and Commerce.*

S. Are there many manufactures in Wales?

M. No; the principal are thoſe of woollen and flannel. The former is almoſt confined to Brecknockſhire; but the latter is diſſeminated over the whole principality.

S. Is the commerce of Wales conſiderable?

M. It is principally confined to England, and Ireland. They ſend vaſt numbers of black cattle to the Engliſh markets; and export large quantities of coals to England, particularly to the weſtern counties. The town of Pembroke

broke employs near 200 ſail of ſhips, and the inhabitants carry on a very conſiderable trade to Ireland and America.

6. *Learning, and Learned Men.*

S. Have the arts and ſciences flouriſhed long in Wales?

M. Yes; much longer than in England. It was the ſeat of the Muſes, when the Engliſh were ſtrangers to letters. But the repeated maſſacres of their clergy, and bards, eclipſed the rays of learning for a conſiderable time. Since the reformation, Wales has produced ſeveral learned men, eſpecially antiquaries and divines; and the principality can now boaſt of many that are an honour to literature.

7. *Antiquities and Curioſities.*

S. Are there many remains of antiquity now in Wales?

M. A prodigious number. Here are more remains of the Druidical ſuperſtition than in any other country. The iſle of Angleſea called Mona, by Tacitus, was the principal ſeminary of the Druids; and the chief ſeat of their rites and religion, except Stonehenge, on Saliſbury plain. The remains of Britiſh and Roman architecture are ſcattered over the greater part of the country. It would be endleſs to give a deſcription of all the Roman altars, utenſils, coins, and other Roman antiquities that have been found in Wales. Among the buildings of that famous people, is Caerphilly-caſtle, in Glamorganſhire, the remains of which ſtill ſhew it to have been once a beautiful fabric. One half of the round tower is fallen down, and the other overhangs its baſis above nine feet, affording as great a curioſity as the celebrated leaning tower at Piſa.

The road from England to Holyhead, runs over a lofty mountain, called Penmanmoer, and affords one of the moſt awful ſcenes in the world to a ſtranger. Over his head hangs a craggy and enormous rock, threatening every moment to cruſh him with its fall; and below him is a frightful precipice ſurrounded with the ſea, whoſe waves beat tremendouſly againſt the foot of the mountain; ſo that one falſe ſtep muſt be of dreadful conſequence.

DIALOGUE VII.

Scotland.

S. WHAT are the boundaries and dimenſions of Scotland?

M. On the ſouth it is bounded by England; on the weſt by the Iriſh ſea; on the north by the Deucaledonian, and on the eaſt by the German ocean. It is about 250 miles in length, and 140 in breadth. According to Mr. Templeman, it is 278 miles in length, 194 in breadth, and contains an area of 22,794 ſquare miles.

S. Is it known from what people the Scots are deſcended?

M. Not certainly; but it is reaſonably conjectured, that their anceſtors were Scythians, who, after conquering the Picts, uſurped their territories, and called the kingdom Scotland.

S. What are the principal diviſions of Scotland?

M. The ancient, and indeed the natural diviſions of Scotland, are only two; the counties on the ſouth ſide of the Frith of Forth; and thoſe on the north ſide of it. Some have divided Scotland into Highlands and Lowlands. It is divided into two parts, by the Grampian and Grantzbrian hills, which extend acroſs the country from eaſt to weſt. The rivers divide it into three peninſulas, one to the ſouth, one in the middle, and one to the north. But it is now divided into thirty-two ſhires; and thoſe again ſubdivided into ſheriffdoms, &c. as in the following table:

Shires.	*Sheriffdoms and other Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Edinburgh,	Mid. Lothian,	Edinburgh.
Haddington,	East Lothian,	Dunbar and Haddington.
Merſe, anciently Berwick,	The Merches and Bailiary of Lauderdale,	Berwick, Dunſe and Lauder,
Roxborough,	Tiviotdale, Lidſdale, and Eſkdale,	Jedburgh, Hermitage, and Roxborough.

Shires.

Shires.	*Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Selkirk,	Ettorick Foreſt,	Selkirk.
Peebles,	Tweedale,	Peebles.
Lanerk	Clydeſdale,	Glaſgow, Hamilton, and Lanerk.
Dumfries,	Nithſdale, Annandale	Dumfries, Annand.
Wigtown,	Galloway, Weſt Part	Wigtown.
Air,	Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham,	Aire, Balgeny, and Irwin
Dumbarton,	Lenox,	Dumbarton.
Bute, and Caithneſs,	Bute, Arran, and Caithneſs,	Rothſay, and Wick.
Renfrew,	Renfrew,	Renfrew.
Stirling,	Stirling,	Stirling.
Linlithgow,	Weſt Lothian,	Linlithgow.
Perth,	Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Glenſhield, and Raynork,	Perth, Athol, Scone, Blair, and Dunkeld.
Kincardin,	Merns	Berwey.
Aberdeen,	Mar, Buchan, and Strathbogie,	Old Aberdeen, New Aberdeen, Fraſerſburgh, and Peterhead.
Inverneſs,	Badenoch, Lochabar, part of Roſs and Murray,	Inverneſs, Inverlochy.
Nairn, and Cromartie.	Weſtern part of Murray, and Cromartie,	Nairne, Cromartie, Tayne, and Tarbat.
Argyle,	Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kentyre, and Lorn; with part of the Weſtern Iſles, particularly Iſla, Jura, Mull, Wiſt, Terriff, Col, and Liſmore,	Inverary, Dunſtafnag, Killonmer, and Campbletown.

Shires.	*Sheriffdoms and other Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Fife,	Fife,	St. Andrew, Couper, Burnt Iſland, Dumferlin, Dyſart, and Anſtruther.
Forfar,	Forfar, Angus,	Montroſe, and Forfar.
Bamff.	Bamff, Strathdovern, Boytie, Euzy, Balveny, Strathavin,	Bamff.
Kirkcudbright,	Galloway, Eaſt Part,	Kirkcudbright.
Sutherland,	Strathnaver, Part, and Dornoch,	Strathy, Dornoch.
Clackmanan and Kinroſs	Fife, Part,	Kinroſs, and Clacmanan.
Roſs,	Roſs, Iſles of Sky, Lewis, Harris, Ardroſs, and Glenelg.	Roſs
Elgin,	Murray,	Elgin.
Orkney,	Iſles of Orkney, and Shetland	Kirkwall, and Skalloway.

In all, thirty-three ſhires, which chuſe thirty repreſentatives to ſit in the parliament of Great Britain; Bute, and Caithneſs, chuſing alternately, as do Nairne, and Cromartie, Clackmanan, and Kinroſs.

S. Do not the boroughs in Scotland chuſe repreſentatives?

M. Yes; as follow:

Edinburgh, - - - - - - - - 1
Kirkwall, Wick, Darnoch, Dingwall, and Tayn, - 1
Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairn, and Forres, - - 1
Elgin, Cullein, Bamf, Inverary, and Kintire, - 1
Aberdeen, Bervy, Montroſe, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, - - - - - - - - - 1
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrews, 1
Crail, Kilrenny, Anſtruther, eaſt and weſt, and Pittenweem, - - - - - - - - - 1

Dyſart,

Dyſart, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt-iſland, - 1
Innerkeithen, Dumfermlin, Queensferry, Culroſs, and Stirling, - - - - - - - - - 1
Glaſgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton, - 1
Haddington, Dumbar, North Berwick, Lawder, and Jedburgh, - - - - - - - - 1
Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk, - - 1
Dumfries, Sanquabar, Annan, Lochmaban, and Kirkcudbright, - - - - - - - - 1
Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranrawer, and Whitehorn, - - - - - - - - 1
Air, Irwin, Rothſay, Cambeltown, and Inverary, - 1

1. *Climate, Soil, Air, and Water.*

S. What is the climate of Scotland?

M. It is different in different places, occaſioned by the variety of its hills, valleys, rivers, and lakes; but in general it is agreeable and healthy.

S. Is the air ſultry?

M. It is commonly moiſt and temperate, except in the neighbourhood of ſome very high mountains, which are perpetually covered with ſnow: where it is, for about nine months in the year, keen and piercing.

S. Is the ſoil good?

M. By induſtry, and ſkilful agriculture, it may be rendered as fruitful as that of England, though vegetables will not come to maturity quite ſo early. The inequality of the ſoil in Scotland is ſurpriſing; and has never been accounted for either by natural or local cauſes.

S. Is the water good?

M. Yes; it is pure, light and eaſy to the ſtomach; and ſome mineral ſprings have been diſcovered.

2. *Mountains and Foreſts.*

S. What are the principal mountains in Scotland?

M. The Grampian-hills; the Pentland-hills; Lammer Muir; and the Cheviot, or Teviot-hills. Beſides theſe, Scotland contains many detached mountains, ſome of which are ſtupendouſly high, and of beautiful forms.

S. Are there many large foreſts in this country?

M. There is no doubt but Scotland was once over-run with timber, and there ſtill remain ſeveral extenſive foreſts. Ettrick Wood, in the ſouth of Scotland, is ſuppoſed to be the remains of the Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian Foreſt. Fir trees grow in great perfection almoſt all over Scotland, and form very beautiful plantations. There are ſome woods in the Highlands, which extend twenty or thirty miles in length, and four or five in breadth, and produce moſt excellent oak; but being at a vaſt diſtance from water carriage, it is not of much emolument to the proprietors.

3. *Rivers and Lakes.*

S. What are the chief rivers in Scotland?

M. The Forth, the Tay, the Spey, the Clyde, and the Tweed; but beſides theſe, there are many of leſs note plentifully ſtocked with ſalmon, trout, and a variety of other fiſh.

S. Does not Scotland abound in lakes?

M. Yes, by the inhabitants called Lochs, the principal of which are the Loch Tay, the Loch Lomond, and the Loch Au. The Scots alſo frequently give the name loch to an arm of the ſea, of which Loch Fyn is one, and is ſixty miles long and four broad. On the top of a hill, near Lochneſs, which is near two miles perpendicular, is a lake of freſh water, about ſixty yards in length, and hitherto thought to be unfathomable. This lake never freezes; whereas the Lochanwin, or green lake, about ſeventeen miles from it, is perpetually covered with ice.

4. *Mines, Metals, &c.*

S. What mines have they in Scotland?

M. It is ſaid to contain mines of gold, which were formerly worked with ſucceſs; but have long been neglected. The lead-mines, from whence ſeveral land-holders derive a very large profit, are ſuppoſed to contain great quantities of ſilver. Some copper mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts in the eaſt, weſt, and northern counties of Scotland, produce various ſorts of excellent coal, of which large quantities are exported. Lime-ſtone, and free-ſtone, are here in great plenty. La-

pis Lazuli, is ſaid to be dug up in Lanerkſhire; Allum-mines have been found in Bamffſhire: and chryſtal, variegated pebbles, and other tranſparent ſtones, which admit of a moſt beautiful poliſh, are found in many parts of this country; as are talc, flint, ſea-ſhells, potters-clay, fuller's earth, and elf-arrow-heads. Scotland likewiſe produces great plenty of iron-ore, both in mines and ſtones.

5. *Vegetables, Fruits, Animals, &c.*

S. What vegetables and fruits are produced in Scotland?

M. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, and graſs for paſturage. In the ſouthern counties there are peaches, apricots, and nectarines; and the ſea coaſt produces vaſt quantities of marine plants, among which is the alga marina, eſteemed very wholeſome by the inhabitants.

S. Is fiſh plentiful in Scotland?

M. Their lakes abound with fiſh of every kind, particularly ſalmon: and of late years ſocieties have been formed by the Scots, for improving their fiſheries, which have ſucceeded beyond expectation.

S. Is Scotland famous for any particular animals?

M. No; neither wild nor domeſtic. The red deer and the roe-buck, are found in the Highlands, but their fleſh is very indifferent.

S. Is there plenty of game?

M. Yes; there are vaſt numbers of hares, grouſe, heath-cock, capperkaily, and tarmacan.

6. *Number of Inhabitants, their Cuſtoms, Religion, &c.*

S. What is the number of inhabitants in Scotland?

M. It is generally fixed at about a million and a half of ſouls; but this calculation reſts entirely upon vague conjecture, as no proper method has yet been taken to confirm it.

S. What ſort of people are the Scots?

M. In their perſons, the lower claſs are commonly lean, raw-boned, clean-limbed, and diſtinguiſhed from moſt other nations, by very high cheek bones: but, on the other hand, they can endure incredible hardſhips and fatigues. The poorer ſort of women are coarſe; but, thoſe of diſtinction, do not yield the palm of beauty to their ſouthern

ſouthern neighbours. The gentlemen pique themſelves greatly upon their family, and antiquity of deſcent. The peaſants are very confined in their ideas, but conform with vaſt chearfulneſs to their ſtations. They never enter alone into any deſperate enterprize; but when a number of them are engaged in an undertaking, they execute it with wonderful ſagacity, perſeverance, and reſolution; nor is it in the power of bribes to overcome their ſworn fidelity to each other.

S. Have they any cuſtoms peculiar to themſelves?

M. Several; among the foremoſt of which, is their fondneſs for the language of their anceſtors. They delight in the old Scotch diſhes, ſuch as the haggice, the ſheep's head ſinged, &c. &c. Their funerals are very remarkable. When a relation dies, the family ſends the beadle of the pariſh round with a paſſing bell, who ſolemnly announces the name of the deceaſed, and invites all his fellow countrymen to the place of interment; where, at the hour appointed, great numbers generally meet. No burial ſervice is read over the body, nor any other ceremony uſed, than the neareſt relation thanking the company for their attendance.

S. Are they fond of amuſements?

M. The inhabitants of thoſe parts of Scotland, where they live chiefly by paſture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful ſimplicity of the Scotch muſic has been juſtly admired. Dancing is a favourite amuſement in this country, which they perform with amazing agility, keeping exact time to their own tunes. Goff is a diverſion much uſed by the gentlemen, which, in a great meaſure, reſembles that of mall, formerly known in England. Curling is another game peculiar to the Scots; being performed upon the ice with very large flat ſtones, which they hurl from a fixed place to a particular mark, and he who approaches neareſt to this mark obtains the victory.

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland?

M. The Preſbyterian; but different ſects are tolerated as in England?

S. You mentioned the attachment of the Scots to the language of their anceſtors; what is the ancient language of Scotland?

M. The

M. A dialect of the Celtic called Erſe: at preſent the moſt polite part of that nation ſpeak Engliſh; as do all the inhabitants of the ſouthern provinces, only varying the pronunciation.

8. *Manufactures and Commerce.*

S. What manufactures is Scotland remarkable for?

M. Several; among which are the following: iron, linen, thread, flowered and ſtriped lawns, carpets, woollen caps, ſtockings, mittens, &c.

S. Do they carry on an extenſive trade?

M. Of late years their commerce has been much improved, and they now export vaſt quantities of their produce to the Britiſh ſettlements in America. Their trade with England is alſo very conſiderable, particularly in coals; formerly they ſent numbers of black cattle into England, which an increaſe of home conſumption now, in a great meaſure, prevents.

9. *Fiſheries.*

S. Is Scotland remarkable for fiſh?

M. Yes; it abounds in all kinds of freſh water fiſh, particularly ſalmon, which the inhabitants cure, and ſend to the Levant, and ſouthern markets, in vaſt quantities. All this ſhore is famous for herrings, which they alſo cure in great perfection, and export to America, &c. to the great emolument of their country. But the fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coaſts; for they are deeply engaged in the whale-fiſhery carried on upon the coaſt of Spitſbergen, the returns of which they find very conſiderable.

10. *Learning, and Learned Men.*

S. Does learning flouriſh in Scotland?

M. There is no nation where it is more generally promoted. Beſides the univerſities of Edinburgh, St. Andrew's, Aberdeen, and Glaſgow, public ſchools are erected in almoſt every pariſh, where children are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, gratis; ſo that the pooreſt peaſant you meet boaſts theſe neceſſary parts of education. There

There is alſo an inſtitution for the propagation of religion in foreign parts, and for the promotion of religion and learning at home.

S. Has Scotland been famous for learned men?

M. Yes; St. Patrick, the celebrated apoſtle of Ireland, was born in Scotland; and there are many writings ſtill extant, which are convincing teſtimonies of the learning of thoſe times; among the foremoſt of which, are thoſe of Adamnanus. Barbour, who flouriſhed before Chaucer, was a famous poet, philoſopher, and hiſtorian. Buchanan's hiſtory is, even now, held in high eſteem; and letters from ſeveral kings of Scotland to neighbouring powers, will, to the lateſt ages, reflect honour on the compoſers of them. In more modern times this country has produced thoſe eminent mathematicians, Napier of Merchiſton, the inventor of logarithms, Keil, Gregory, and Maclaurin; and the Phyſicians Pitcairne, Monro, Whytt and Cullen; it has alſo to boaſt the moral philoſophy of Hutcheſon, the poetry of Thomſon the eloquence of Blair, and the hiſtories of the late profeſſor Robertſon.

11. *Antiquities and Curioſities.*

S. What antiquities are there in Scotland?

M. Several remains of Roman caſtellas, and pretentures, or walls reaching acroſs the iſland, are yet to be traced by a curious obſerver. Agricola's camp, at the foot of the Grampian hills, is ſtill very perfect; beſides which, coins, urns, utenſils, inſcriptions, and other remains of Roman antiquity, have been found here in ſuch numbers, as render it impoſſible to particularize them.

S. What natural curioſities does Scotland boaſt?

M. Very few, except their lakes and mountains, of which I have already given you a deſcription. Upon the top of a mountain, called Scorna Lappick, in Roſsſhire, twenty miles diſtant from the ſea, are found great numbers of oyſter, and other ſea-ſhells; together with a heap of white ſtones, which are clear as cryſtal. In Fifeſhire, there are ſeveral caverns of extraordinary dimenſions; and at Slains, in Aberdeenſhire, is a petrifying cave, where the water, which is perpetually dropping from the top of the rock, conſolidates ſoon after it is fallen to the bottom.

12. *Hiſ-*

12. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. Are the Scots a very ancient people?

M. Yes; they are ſuppoſed to be deſcended from the Scythians, who having conquered the former inhabitants, gave their own name to this country. Agricola was the firſt Roman general who attacked this people, but it does not appear that they were ever entirely ſubdued.

S. Was not England and Scotland engaged in ſeveral wars againſt each other.

M. Yes, with various ſucceſs; and in the year 1290, upon the death of Alexander III. king of Scotland, John Baliol, and Robert Bruce, became competitors for the crown. After ſome time, they fixed on Edward I. of England, as arbitrator; and that monarch adjudged it to Baliol, whom he ſoon after dethroned; and having obliged him to make a formal ſurrender of the crown of Scotland, he forced the Scots to ſign inſtruments of their ſubjection to England.

S. Were they eaſy under this ſubjection?

M. No; Bruce, who had conteſted the crown with Baliol, being dead, the Scots proclaimed his ſon king, and ſeveral battles were fought between him and Edward: particularly one at Bannoch-burn, where the Engliſh were entirely defeated. Bruce at length recovered the freedom of his country, and made an advantageous peace with England.

S. When did the family of the Stuarts firſt aſcend the throne of Scotland?

M. In the year 1371, when Robert II. who had married a daughter of Robert I. became poſſeſſed of the crown in right of his wife; and the hereditary ſucceſſion was continued in this family from that period till the abdication of James VII. of Scotland, and II. of England.

S. How came the kings of Scotland to gain poſſeſſion of the crown of England?

M. James IV. of Scotland, having married a daughter of Henry VII. of England, his grandſon, James VI. on the death of his couſin, queen Elizabeth aſcended the throne of this kingdom, by the title of James I. Scotland and England, however, were conſidered as entirely diſtinct

diſtinct from each other, till the reign of queen Anne, when the act of union was paſſed, whereby the two kingdoms were united, under the name of Great Britain.

13. *The Iſlands of Scotland.*

S. How many Scotiſh iſlands are there?

M. There are three principal cluſters of them, viz. 1. The Orcades, which lie north of Dungſby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by Pentland Frith, and conſiſt of about thirty iſles. 2. The Shetland iſles which lie north eaſt of the Orcades, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude. Theſe iſles, which are forty-ſix in number, compoſe part of the ſhire of Orkney. 3. The Hebrides, or more properly Hebudes, or Weſtern Iſles, ſituated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude, of which there are a great number; but the principal are Mull, Lewis, and Harries.

S. Is there any thing remarkable in theſe iſlands?

M. There are the remains of ſeveral Druidical temples, churches, forts, and other large buildings. In Hoy, one of the Weſtern Iſles, is a ſort of hermitage, cut out of a ſtone, called the dwarf ſtone, thirty-ſix feet long, eighteen broad, and nine thick. The entrance is by a ſquare hole, about two feet high; and the inſide of this remarkable place, contains a bed, and pillow, hewn out of the ſtone, wide and long enough, for two men to lie on: in the center is a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney, and at the further end of the room, a couch. In another of the Weſtern Iſles, called Jona, or St. Columb-Kill, famous for affording ſanctuary to St. Columba and other learned men, in the times of barbariſm, is a church called St. Mary, which is built in form of a cathedral. The ſteeple is large, and the cupola twenty-one feet ſquare. The doors and windows are curiouſly carved, and the altar of moſt beautiful marble. Here are ſeveral tombs, which, by the inſcriptions, contain the bodies of ſome Scotch, or Iriſh kings; but the tomb of St. Columba, which is likewiſe in this church, is without any inſcription.

S. Do not the inhabitants of the Hebrides pretend to the gift of prophecy?

M. Yes;

M. Yes; they term it ſecond-ſight; and the adepts in this ſcience, pretend that they have certain revelations, or preſentations, either real, or typical, which ſwim before their eyes of events that are to happen in the compaſs of twenty-four, or forty-eight hours. But it is obſervable, that not any two of theſe prophets agree as to the manner and form of theſe revelations: nor have they any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. It ſeems therefore to proceed from an enthuſiaſtical imagination; and that their pretended prophecies are the mere effects of viſionary deluſion.

DIALOGUE VIII.

Ireland.

S. WHAT are the boundaries of Ireland?

M. St. George's Channel, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Deucaledonian Sea. St. George's Channel ſeparates its eaſtern ſhore from England; on the north it is bounded by the Deucaledonian ſea; and on the weſt and ſouth by the Atlantic Ocean.

S. Between what parallels of latitude, and circles of longitude, is Ireland ſituated?

M. Between 51 and 56 deg. of north latitude; and between 5 and 10 deg. of weſt longitude

S. What are the dimenſions of this iſland?

M. It is about three hundred miles in length, and 150 in breadth, and contains about 17,927,864 Engliſh acres. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length to be 275 miles, and the breadth 159, gives it an area of 27,457 ſquare miles.

S. Is the diſtance great between Wales and Ireland?

M. No; it is not more than 45 miles from Wexford to St. David's, in Wales, and about the ſame diſtance from Dublin to Holyhead, the weſternmoſt promontory of the iſland of Angleſey. The diſtance is much leſs between the coaſts of Ireland and Scotland; the channel that divides them being only 16 miles in breadth.

S. What are the principal diviſions and ſubdiviſions of Ireland?

M. It

M. It is divided into provinces, and these are subdivided into counties, as in the following table:

Provinces.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
Leinster,	Dublin,	Dublin.
	Louth,	Drogheda.
	Wicklow,	Wicklow.
	Wexford,	Wexford.
	Longford,	Longford.
	East Meath,	Trim.
	West Weath,	Mullingar.
	King's County,	Phillipstown.
	Queen's County,	Maryborough.
	Kilkenny,	Kilkenny.
	Kildare,	Naas and Athy.
	Carlow,	Carlow.
Ulster,	Down,	Down Patrick.
	Armagh,	Charlemont.
	Monaghan,	Monhaghan.
	Cavan,	Cavan.
	Antrim	Carrickfergus.
	Londonderry,	Derry.
	Tyrone,	Omagh.
	Fermanagh,	Enniskillen.
	Donnegal,	Donnegal.
Connaught,	Leitrim,	Leitrim.
	Roscommon,	Roscommon.
	Mayo,	Ballinrobe.
	Sligo,	Sligo.
	Galway	Galway.
Munster,	Clare,	Ennis.
	Cork,	Cork.
	Kerry,	Tralee.
	Limerick,	Limerick.
	Tipperary,	Clonmel.
	Waterford,	Waterford.

1. *Soil, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, and Forests.*

S. What is the soil of Ireland?

M. Like that of all other countries, different in different parts of the island; but, in general, extremely fruitful,

ful, and excellently adapted to the culture of all kinds of grain; and of late years, husbandry is greatly improved in that nation. Great quantities of fine hemp and flax are raised in the northern parts of Ireland, of infinite advantage to their linen manufacture; there is also excellent pasture and meadow-land in almost every part of the kingdom.

S. What are the names of the principal rivers in Ireland?

M. The Shannon, the Liffey, the Boyne, the Ban, and the Lurgan water; besides which, it abounds with others of less note.

S. Are there any lakes in that kingdom?

M. Several; particularly in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught; and the great lake, called Lough Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is famous for its fish and petrifying quality.

S. Are there any remarkable high mountains in Ireland?

M. Slieu Denard, one of the highest, has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. The mountains of Mourne and Iveah, in the county of Down, equal, if not exceed Slieu Denard in height; besides which, there are numbers not so high. The Irish have a particular method of distinguishing the size of their mountains: a knock, signifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; a slieve, denotes a craggy high mountain, gradually ascending, and continued in several ridges; and beinn, or bin, is their appellation for the highest mountains.

S. What forests are there in that kingdom?

M. The principal ones lie in Leinster, the King's and Queen's counties, and those of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulster, Donnegal, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Loughlin, Earn, and in the northern part of the county of Down; there are likewise other large forests, which contain excellent timber.

2. *Bays and Harbours.*

S. What bays and harbours are there in Ireland?

M. Several exceeding fine ones, viz. Waterford Haven; Carlinford Haven; Strangford Haven; Ship Haven; Donegal Haven; Galway Haven; Smerwick, or St. Marywick

Marywick Haven; Caſtle Haven; Limerick Haven; Glandore Haven; Kinſale Haven; Cork Haven; Carrickfergus Bay; Dingle Bay; Kilmore Bay; Bantry Bay; Dunmanus Bay: Baltimore Bay, and Killebegs Harbour. Beſides the havens I have mentioned, which are all unbarred, are the following, ſome of which are barred; Wexford; Wicklow; Dublin; Drogheda; Dundalk; Dundrum, Killough; Ardglaſs; Old Fleet; Donagadee; Glenarm; Ballycaſtle; Colerain, or Ban Haven; St. Hellens, corrupted into the Tellen; M'Sway's Bay; Ballyſhannon; Sligo; Moy; Roundſtone Bay; Tralee; Younghall; and Dungarvon. Excluſive of which, there are many other bays and roads, where ſhips, if diſtreſſed, may put in for relief.

3. *Vegetable and Animal Productions.*

S. Does Ireland produce plenty of vegetables?

M. I have already, in ſpeaking of the ſoil, obſerved, that this country is very fruitful, and ſhall add, that its productions are much the ſame with thoſe of England. Turf and moſs are to be found all over the kingdom; which, in places where coals are ſcarce, make excellent fewel.

S. What animals are there in Ireland?

M. None peculiar to that country, except the wolf-dogs, which are much larger than maſtiffs, ſhaped like grey-hounds, and perfectly gentle. Theſe dogs have almoſt cleared Ireland of wolves, of which there were formerly a great many. Hogs, ſheep, and black cattle, are bred here in prodigious numbers; and rabbits are ſaid to be more numerous than in England.

S. Have they plenty of fiſh?

M. Yes; their coaſts abound with every kind, and ſome of them larger and better than thoſe of England. Their rivers and lakes are full of fiſh, eſpecially ſalmon.

4. *Metals and Minerals.*

S. What mines have they in Ireland?

M. Of late years ſeveral have been diſcovered, containing ſilver and lead, the richeſt of which is at Wicklow; and

and a copper and lead mine have been found at Tipperary. At Kilkenny there is a coal mine, the coals from which have the ſingular property of emitting very little, or no ſmoke. There are ſeveral quarries of marble, ſome of which contain a ſort of red and white ſtriped porphyry. Fine red ſlate is found all over the kingdom; and at Tipperary there is excellent free-ſtone for building. Iron ore is alſo dug in ſeveral parts of Ireland.

5. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. In what does the trade of Ireland conſiſt?

M. In her vaſt exports of linen-cloth, yarn, lawns, cambrics, beef, pork, green hides, and ſome tanned leather, calf-ſkins, tallow, candles, butter, cheeſe, ox and cow horns, ox-hair, horſe hair, ſome lead, copper-ore, herrings, dried fiſh, rabbit ſkins, furr, otter-ſkins, goat-ſkins, and ſalmon. Their wool and bay-yarn are by law allowed to be exported to England only; but great quantities of both are ſmuggled into other countries.

S. What are the principal manufactures?

M. Linen and ſtuffs; both which they have carried to an amazing height of perfection.

6. *Inhabitants, Cuſtoms, &c.*

S. What number of inhabitants does Ireland contain?

M. At the commencement of the preſent century, the number of inhabitants in Ireland was thought to be about two millions; whereas, in 1672, there were, according to Sir William Petty, no more than 1,100,000. But from the accounts laid before the houſe of commons in 1786, (as returned by the hearth money collectors) the number of houſes in Ireland amounted to 474,234. If we add to this the probable increaſe ſince, and allow for the numbers intentially or unavoidably overlooked in ſuch returns, we may reaſonably conclude that the preſent actual amount is 500,000.

We are next to conſider the average number of perſons we ſhould allow to each houſe. In the peaſants cottages in Ireland, (perhaps the moſt populous in the world) Mr. Young in ſome parts found the average 6 and 6½; others have found it in different places to be 7; and Dr. Hamilton in

in his account of the iſland of Ragbery enumerates the houſes, and diſcovered the average therein to be 8. In the cities and principal towns, the houſes, particularly in the manufacturing parts, generally contain ſeveral families, and from different accounts the numbers in ſuch are from 10 up ſo high as 70. It may not, therefore, perhaps, be very erroneous to take the average for the whole iſland, at 8 perſons for each houſe, by which multiplying the number of houſes the population of Ireland will amount to four millions.

S. What ſort of people are the Iriſh?

M. The lower claſs are a ſtrong-bodied, nimble, active people; ignorant, and uncivilized; implacable, and violent; impatient of abuſe and injury; but, on the other hand, they are brave quick of apprehenſion, courteous to ſtrangers, and patient under hardſhips. Thoſe of ſuperior rank are polite, and extremely hoſpitable.

S. What peculiar cuſtoms have they?

M. In the interior parts of the kingdom many old cuſtoms ſtill prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; and that of placing a dead body, with a plate on it, upon the table, and expoſing it before their doors, in order to excite the charity of paſſengers. They likewiſe hold meetings on Sundays, and dance to the muſic of bagpipes; but their mirth generally terminates in violent quarrels. They live in mean huts, or cabbins, built of clay and ſtraw, with a partition in the middle, formed of the ſame materials: one of theſe rooms accommodates the family, who live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having their fires of turf in the center of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other ſerves for their cow and horſe; in which, together with a ſpot for their potatoes, and ſome poultry, their whole wealth conſiſts.

S. What language do they ſpeak?

M. The Iriſh language is originally the ſame as the Britiſh, or Welſh; but from a mixture of other languages, has been materially altered. The common people ſpeak both Iriſh and Engliſh, but the uſage of the former gives them a particular tone in the pronunciation of the latter.

7. *Religion, Univerſity, public Schools, &c.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of Ireland?

M. The

M. The ſame with that of England; but, in the more uncultivated parts, popery prevails; and the Iriſh papiſts ſtill retain their nominal biſhops, &c. who ſubſiſt on the voluntary gifts of their followers. Ireland alſo contains great numbers of preſbyterians, anabaptiſts, quakers, and methodiſts.

S. Are there any univerſities in Ireland?

M. Only that of Dublin, which conſiſts of one college, under the title of "The College of the Holy and Undivided Trinity, near Dublin, founded by the moſt ſerene queen Elizabeth." The firſt ſtone of it was laid on the thirteenth of March, 1591; and on the ninth of January, 1593, the firſt ſtudents were admitted into it. It conſiſts of a provoſt, ſeven ſenior, thirteen junior fellows, and ſeventy ſcholars of the houſe, who have ſome maintenance upon the foundation; the whole number educated in it are about five hundred.

S. Are there any public ſchools?

M. Several free-ſchools have been frequently erected in this kingdom, from the time of James I. for civilizing and converting the Iriſh papiſts to proteſtantiſm; and in the year 1717, the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh proteſtant working-ſchools was inſtituted at Dublin, and has been carried on ever ſince with the utmoſt ſucceſs.

S. Has Ireland been famous for learned men?

M. Great numbers; among whom it will be ſufficient to particularize archbiſhop Uſher, dean Swift, and Congreve.

8. *Curioſities, &c.*

S. What curioſities are there in Ireland?

M. Several; but that which deſerves the greateſt attention is, what is called the Giant's Cauſeway. This amazing work of nature is ſituated in the county of Antrim, of which Dr. Pococke, late biſhop of Oſſory, has given us the following deſcription. "I meaſured," ſays that celebrated traveller, "the moſt weſterly point at high water, to the diſtance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet farther upon a deſcent, till it was loſt in the ſea. Upon meaſuring the eaſt-

ern point, I found it 540 feet from the cliff, and ſaw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the eaſt, and is like that loſt in the water. The cauſeway is compoſed of pillars all of angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. The eaſtern point where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of the pillars, ſome of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints, or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about a foot in thickneſs; and what is very ſurpriſing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, and fitting in the exacteſt manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally conſiſt of about forty joints, moſt of which ſeparate very eaſily, and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water. But this is not the moſt ſingular part of this extraordinary curioſity, the cliffs themſelves being ſtill more ſurprizing. From the bottom, which is of black ſtone, to the height of about ſixty feet, they are divided at equal diſtances by ſtripes of a reddiſh ſtone, that reſembles a cement about four inches in thickneſs; upon this there is another ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum five inches thick of the red. Over this is another ſtratum ten feet thick, divided in the ſame manner; then a ſtratum of the red ſtone twenty feet deep, and above that a ſtratum of upright pillars; above theſe pillars lies another ſtratum of black ſtone, twenty feet high; and above this again, another ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not ſo high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of theſe cliffs extends above three Engliſh miles." Beſides the Giant's Cauſeway, there are ſeveral other natural curioſities to be met with in Ireland, conſiſting of romantic proſpects, cataracts, and cavities; and at Dunmore, in the county of Kilkenny, is a cave, the vaults of which are in ſome parts extremely high, the arches being ſupported by large and regular columns, and in others by huge craggy rocks. The extent of this cave has never been aſcertained, many perſons

ſons having loſt their lives in the attempt. The principal artificial curioſities in Ireland, are the round Pharos, or ſtone towers, which ſtand upon the coaſts, and are ſuppoſed to have been built by the Danes and Norwegians, who made uſe of them as ſpy towers, and light-houſes.

9. *Conſtitution, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution of Ireland?

M. At preſent it differs very little from that of England.

S. How is it governed?

M. A viceroy, ſtiled lord lieutenant, is appointed and ſent over by the king of England, whom he repreſents, to preſide over public affairs. The parliament is the ſupreme court, being convened by the king's writ, and prorogued, or diſſolved at his pleaſure. The laws are made by the houſes of lords and commons, after which they are ſent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved of by his majeſty and council, they paſs the great ſeal of England, and are returned.

S. What are the revenues of Ireland?

M. They are ſuppoſed to pay almoſt a million ſterling per annum, of which large ſums are granted away in penſions.

10. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What account do hiſtorians give us of the ancient ſtate of Ireland?

M. None which can be called ſatisfactory, except that it was governed by ſeveral petty princes, and frequently invaded by the Danes, till the reign of Henry II. of England, who, provoked at the frequent piracies of the Iriſh, and the aſſiſtance they gave his enemies, reſolved to ſubdue them, which having accompliſhed in the year 1172, he gave the title of lord of Ireland to his ſon John. This prince erected part of the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter into twelve counties, but the other parts of Ireland ſtill continued to be governed by their own laws, paying only a nominal ſubjection to John. The ſucceſſes of Robert Bruce raiſed great commotions among the Iriſh, who were tempted to transfer their allegiance from the kings of England, to thoſe of Scotland, and Edward Bruce was actually crowned king of Dundalk; but he being defeated and

ſlain, the Iriſh ſubmitted to Edward II. who paſſed ſeveral excellent laws with regard to their country. They appear to have remained quiet during the ſubſequent part of this reign; but in that of Edward **II**. they once more rebelled. This monarch having ſubdued the kingdom, treated the nation with ſuch lenity, as entirely gained their affections. The attachment of the Iriſh to the houſe of York, was very ſtrong; for after the death of Richard III. they very warmly embraced the cauſe of Lambert Simnel, and afterwards that of Perkin Warbeck, of both whom I gave you an account when treating of England. Henry VII. however, did not reſent their behaviour; for after the defeat of theſe adventurers, he treated them with great lenity, only obliging them to take a freſh oath of allegiance to his government. Hitherto the kings of England had only aſſumed the appellation of lords of Ireland; but Henry VIII. finding the Iriſh entertained a very mean opinion of his dignity, took the title of king of Ireland, which his ſucceſſors have continued ever ſince. This expedient produced the deſired effect, for the Iriſh cheerfully paid that ſubmiſſion to their king, which they refuſed to their lord; even O'Neil who pretended to be ſucceſſor to the laſt paramount king of Ireland, ſwore allegiance to Henry, and was, in return, created earl of Tyrone. During the reign of queen Mary, the Iriſh were very quiet; but being moſt of them papiſts, they proved a continual ſource of uneaſineſs to Elizabeth. Rebellions were perpetually forming at the inſtigation of Rome, Spain, and other catholic powers. The attainders when paſſed in this and the ſucceeding reigns, veſted in the crown five hundred and eleven thouſand, four hundred, and ſixty-five acres in different counties in Ireland. In the reign of Charles I. the Iriſh being flattered by their prieſts with the hopes of not only regaining the lands of their anceſtors but likewiſe of entirely extirpating the proteſtant religion, which by this time had made a conſiderable progreſs in Ireland, entered into a diabolical conſpiracy for maſſacreing all the Engliſh in that kingdom. Happily their vile plot was diſcovered by the government at Dublin, which prevented their taking poſſeſſion of that city; but their horrid ſcheme of the maſſacre was in a great meaſure executed, and many thouſands of both ſexes, and all ages were inhumanly murdered. Theſe cruelties, however, were ſo

ſeverely

ſeverely retaliated upon the Iriſh by Cromwell. that during the reign of Charles II. they were perfectly quiet. After the revolution, Ireland afforded an aſylum to James II and the inhabitants ſhewed a firmer attachment to, and exerted themſelves with more ardour in his cauſe, than he did himſelf. After two battles, James abandoned Ireland; and the eſtates of numbers of the Iriſh nobility, his adherents, were declared forfeited. From this period the affairs of Ireland became intimately connected with thoſe of England. Many diſputes, however, occaſionally aroſe between the two countries; the Iriſh complaining that their trade was ſubjected to many unjuſt and injudicious reſtraints by the parliament of England; until, at length, in the time of the American war, numerous corps of volunteers having been raiſed in Ireland, which at length increaſed to not leſs than 80,000 men, well armed and accoutred, the remonſtrances from that country were thought to deſerve ſuch ſerious attention, that, in the year 1782, a number of the old laws which reſtricted the trade of Ireland, were repealed; and the independence of the Iriſh parliament fully acknowledged. In the year 1785, ſome further commercial regulations were made between the two kingdoms. But in a few years after ſtill more violent diſcontents aroſe, in conſequence of the Iriſh catholics demanding a total repeal of all the diſqualifications under which they laboured; and a ſtrong party being formed in favour of a reform in the parliamentary repreſentation. The revolution in France having taken place about this time, theſe demands and diſputes were eagerly fomented by the adherents to the principles of the new republic, who wiſhed to revolutionize the country, and erect a government on the model of, and connected with, that of France. Theſe had united their partiſans in an extenſive ſociety, under the name of *United Iriſhmen*, all bound by oaths, adminiſtered ſecretly, to be faithful to each other. This ſociety, as has ſince appeared by the confeſſion of their principal leaders, ſent emiſſaries to France, to engage the Directory to invade Ireland, repreſenting that the French troops would be immediately joined by almoſt the whole body of the people. An expedition was, accordingly, fitted out, the command of which was given to general Hoche; and ſeveral men of war came into Bantry Bay; but the fleet having been diſperſed, and

the commander in chief not being with them, no landing was attempted, and the expedition totally failed.

The government now proceeded to take the moſt rigorous meaſures to detect and ſuppreſs the conſpiracy, meaſures, in fact, the ſeverity of which nothing but neceſſity could excuſe, and which, ſoon after, forced the ſecret conſpirators into open rebellion. Conſiderable bodies of them appeared in arms, in the month of May, 1798, and made a regular attack on the town of Naas, in which they were repulſed, but they ſoon after found means to make themſelves maſters of Wexford, which they held for ſome time. Other bands of inſurgents appeared at the ſame time in the north of Ireland. They were all, however, defeated with great loſs, in different engagements, and the rebellion, for that time, at leaſt, entirely ſuppreſſed.

In the month of Auguſt following the French ſent three frigates, which landed about 800 men, together with a quantity of arms for the uſe of the inſurgents in Killala Bay. Theſe troops, which were commanded by general Humbert, were joined by a number of the diſaffected Iriſh, and repulſed a body of troops by which they were attacked, under general Lake. They were, however, ſoon after obliged to ſurrender priſoners of war to the army under Lord Cornwallis.

Many perſons, ſome of them of conſiderable eminence, were condemned and executed for being engaged in this rebellion. Among others Mr. Oliver Bond, an opulent merchant of Dublin, was found guilty: when an offer was made by the principal leaders of the conſpiracy then in cuſtody, that if his life ſhould be ſpared, and thoſe not yet tried, permitted to go into voluntary baniſhment, they would make a full confeſſion of all the ſecret meaſures that had been taken in the courſe of exciting the rebellion, and the ſyſtem on which they had proceeded, in training and arming their partiſans. This propoſal was accepted, and Mr. Oliver Bond pardoned; though he ſoon after died ſuddenly in priſon. Arthur O'Connor, Emmet, and Dr. M'Nevin, who ſigned this confeſſion, ſtill remain in confinement, with ſeveral others, and have lately been removed to priſons in Scotland. The rebellion appears to be entirely extinguiſhed, though many acts of violence are ſtill committed in various parts of the country.

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As a remedy for theſe diſtractions and outrages, the preſent miniſters of the Britiſh government have lately recommended a *Union of the two Kingdoms* ſimilar to that of Scotland with England. The meaſure has been approved by both Houſes of the Engliſh parliament, and the Houſe of Lords in Ireland, but rejected by the Iriſh Houſe of Commons. It appears, likewiſe, to be extremely unpopular in Ireland, and whether it will be carried into effect is as yet very doubtful.

DIALOGUE IX.

The Iſles of Man, Jerſey, Guernſey, &c.

THE Iſle of Man is ſituated in St. George's Channel, at an equal diſtance from England, Scotland, and Ireland. Its length from north to ſouth, is about thirty miles: its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the iſland is 54 deg. 16 min. north.

1. *Air, Soil, Vegetable and Animal Productions.*

S. Is the air of the Iſle of Man wholeſome?

M. Yes; the climate is much the ſame as that of the north of England.

S. Is the ſoil fruitful?

M. The champain ground produces wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, and all ſorts of roots and pulſe; but the hilly parts are barren. In the valleys there is excellent paſturage, which a ridge of mountains, running acroſs the iſle, contributes to fertilize.

S. Are there any animals peculiar to this place?

M. None; there are a ſmall breed of horſes on the iſland which are very ſwift and hardy. The coaſts abound with ſea-fowl, and the puffins, which breed in rabbit holes, are eſteemed very delicious eating.

2. *Mines, Harbours, and Curioſities.*

S. Have they any mines in the Iſle of Man?

M. None that are worked, though it is ſaid to abound with lead, iron, and copper; and alſo with quarries of marble, ſlate, and ſtone.

S. What harbours does it contain?

M. Douglas harbour, and Ramſey bay; the former of which has a mole extending to the ſea: and in the latter, ſhips may ride ſafe from all winds, except thoſe at north-eaſt.

S. Does it boaſt of any curioſities?

M. Yes; but they conſiſt chiefly of Runic ſepulchral inſcriptions, which are ſometimes dug up, together with antient monuments of braſs, daggers, and other weapons, partly of braſs, and partly of pure gold.

3. *Religion and hiſtorical Events.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of this iſland?

M. That of the church of England.

S. Is it remarkable for any hiſtorical events?

M. Hiſtory frequently mentions the kings of Man, who for ſome ages were maſters of thoſe ſeas; till in 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, ſubdued the iſland, from which time it continued tributary to that crown, till it was reduced by Edward I. of England. Edward III. beſtowed it on his favourite, the earl of Saliſbury. Henry IV. gave it firſt to the Northumberland family, and then to Sir John Stanley, whoſe poſterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the ſiſter of the laſt lord Derby. For many years this place ſwarmed with ſmugglers, outlaws, debtors, &c. where they lived ſecure from the reach of the laws. The government having taken this into conſideration, in the beginning of the year 1764, a treaty was ſet on foot for the purchaſe of the iſland by the Britiſh crown, which in 1765, was concluded, in conſideration of the ſum of ſeventy thouſand pounds being paid to the proprietor. In conſequence of this purchaſe, his majeſty has now the ſame rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the former owners enjoyed. But, though the form of its government is altered, the duke ſtill retains his territorial property in the iſland.

The

The iſlands of Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark, are all ſituated in the Engliſh channel. They lie in a cluſter in Mount St. Michael's Bay, between Cape La Hogue, in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle, in Brittany. The computed diſtance between Jerſey and Sark, is ſeven leagues; between Jerſey and Alderney, nine leagues; and between Jerſey and Guernſey, ſeven leagues.

Jerſey lies fartheſt within the bay, in 49 deg. 7 min. north latitude, and in the ſecond degree, 26 min. weſt longitude; it is about 12 miles in length.

Guernſey is thirteen miles and a half from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and twelve and a half, where broadeſt, from eaſt to weſt.

Alderney is about eight miles in compaſs, and only ſeparated from Normandy by a narrow ſtreight, called the Race.

Sark is a very ſmall iſland, entirely dependent upon Guernſey.

S. What is the air and ſoil of theſe iſlands?

M. They are all exceedingly healthy, particularly Jerſey, which, though Guernſey is the largeſt and fineſt iſland, is much better peopled and cultivated; the valleys are very fruitful, and contain plenty of ſheep and cattle; but huſbandry is much neglected by the inhabitants, who employ themſelves chiefly in cultivating their orchards, and making cyder, with which both theſe iſlands abound; they are likewiſe very intent upon the improvement of commerce.

S. In what does their trade conſiſt?

M. At Jerſey there is a manufacture of ſtockings, which, together with caps, form the ſtaple commodity of that place; but a conſiderable trade in fiſh is carried on between theſe iſlands and Newfoundland, and they diſpoſe of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The Jerſey honey is eſteemed very fine.

S. Have they fiſh and fowl?

M. Yes, exceedingly good; and Jerſey has ſome of both peculiar to the iſland.

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of theſe iſlands?

M. That of the church of England, but formerly they were all Calviniſts.

S. What language do the inhabitants ſpeak?

M. A very bad French, with an intermixture of Engliſh words.

S. Are there any anecdotes in hiſtory relative to theſe iſlands?

M. They all originally belonged to the Normans, and Jerſey is famous for affording protection to Charles II. during his exile.

S. What is their form of government?

M. Jerſey and Guernſey have governors, which are appointed by the king of England. Alderney and Sark are dependant on the two former.

DIALOGUE X.

France.

THE late kingdom, but now republic, of France, lies between 42 and 51 deg. of north latitude, and between 5 deg. weſt, and 8 deg. eaſt longitude; is about 600 miles in length, and 500 in breadth.

S. What are the boundaries of France?

M. It is bounded on the north by the Netherlands, and the Engliſh channel; on the eaſt by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy; on the South by the Mediterranean, and the Pyrenean mountains; and on the weſt by the Bay of Biſcay.

S. Was not France formerly divided into provinces?

M. Yes, viz. Normandy; Picardy; the iſle of France; Champaign; Bretagne; Orleannois; Burgundy; Lyonnois; Guienne; Languedoc; Dauphine; and Provence. Theſe provinces had each their parliament, who gave their conſent for enacting the laws of the civil government.

S. How long have theſe parliaments been diſſolved?

M. Ever ſince the year 1614, and from that time till the late revolution, the kingdom was divided into thirty-ſix provinces, or generalities, in all which there were only twelve parliaments.

S. How is France now divided?

M. The national aſſembly, in the year 1790, decreed that it ſhould be divided into 83 departments, of which the iſland of Corſica made one. The names of theſe departments, their chief towns, and the ancient provinces of which they were a part, are as follow: *Depart-*

Departments.	*Chief Towns.*	*Provinces.*
Ain	Bourg en Breſſe	Breſſe and Pays de Gex
Aiſne	Laon	Picardy and Vexin
Allier	Moulins	Bourbonnois
Alps (Upper)	Gap	Dauphiny
Alps (Lower	Digue	Provence
Ardeche	Privas	Languedoc
Ardennes	Mezieres	Champagne
Arriege	Foix	Pays de Foix
Aube	Troyes	Champagne
Aude	Carcaſſone	Languedoc
Aveiron	Rhodez	Guienne
Calais Straits	Arras	Picardy
Calvados	Caen	Normandy & Picardy
Cantal	Aurillac	Auvergne & Velay
Channel (the)	Saint Lo	Saintonge Angouleme
Charente	Angouleme	Annis & Saintonge
Charente (Lower)	Saintes	Berry
Cher	Bourges	Berry
Correze	Tulles	Limoſin
Cote d'Or	Dijon	Burgundy
Creuſe	Gueret	Marche & Limoſin
Dordogne	Perigueux	Perigord
Doubs	Beſançon	Franche Comté
Drome	Valence	Dauphiny
Eure	Evreux	Normandy & Picardy
Eure and Loire	Chartres	Pays Chartrain
Finiſterre	Quimper	Brittany
Gard	Niſmes	Languedoc
Garonne (Upper)	Toulouſe	Languedoc
Gers	Auche	Guienne
Gironde	Bourdeaux	Guienne
Herault	Montpellier	Languedoc
Iſle and Vilaine	Rennes	Brittany
Indre	Chateauroux	Berry
Indre and Loire	Tours	Tourain
Iſere	Grenoble	Dauphiny
Jura	Lons le Saunier	Franche Comté
Landes	Mont de Mari	Guienne

Departments.	*Chief Towns.*	*Provinces.*
Loire and Cher	Blois	Orlean, Pays Chartrain
Loire (Upper)	Le Puy	Auvergne & Velay
Loire, (Lower)	Nantes	Brittany
Loiret	Orleans	Orleanois and Gatenois
Lot	Cahors	Quercy
Lot and Garonne	Agen	Guienne & Agenois
Lozere	Mendé	Languedoc & Gevaudan
Maine and Loire	Angers	Anjou & Sauminois
Marne	Chalons	Normandy
Marne (Upper)	Chaumont	Champagne
Mayenne	Laval	Maine and Anjou
Meurthe	Nancy	Lorrain
Meuſe	Bar le Duc or Bar ſur Ornain	Lorrain
Morbihan	Vannes	Brittany
Moſelle	Metz	Lorrain
Nievre	Nevers	Nivernois
North	Douai	French Flanders
North Coaſt	Brieux	Brittany
Oiſe	Beauvais	Iſle of France and Picardy
Orne	Alençon	Normandy & Picardy
Puy de Dome	Clermont	Auvergne & Velay
Pyrenees (Upper)	Tarbes	Bigorre
Pyrenees (Lower)	Oleron	Navarre & Bearnois
Pyrenees (Eaſtern)	Perpignan	Rouſillon
Rhine (Upper)	Colmar	Alſace
Rhine (Lower)	Straſburg	Alſace
Rhone and Loire	Lyons	Lyonnois
Rhone (Mouths of the)	Aix	Provence
Saone (Upper)	Veſoul	Franche Compte
Saone and Loire	Maçon	Burgundy
Sarthe	Le Mans	Maine
Seine	Paris	Iſle of France
Seine (Lower)	Rouen	Normandy

Departments.	*Chief Towns.*	*Provinces.*
Seine and Marne	Melun	Brie & Gatinois
Seiſe and Oiſe	Verſailles	Iſle of France
Sevres (Two)	Niort	Poitou
Somme	Amiens	Picardy
Tarn	Caſtres	Languedoc
Var	Brignolles	Provence
Vendée	Fontenail le Poitou	Poitou
Vienne	Poitiers	Poitou & les Marches
Vienne (Upper)	Limoges	Limoſin
Voſges	Epinal	Lorrain
Yonne	Auxerre	Burgundy

Theſe, with Corſica, are the original eighty-three departments; but by later decrees Corſica is now divided into two departments; Golo, the chief town of which is Baſtia, and Liamone; the chief town. Ajaccio. The department of Rhone and Loire has likewiſe been divided into two departments; the department of the Rhone, the chief town, Lyons, and that of the Loire, with Montbriſſon for its chief town. The county of Nice has alſo been declared a part of France, by the name of the department of the Maritime Alps; its chief town Nice; as has likewiſe the territory of Avignon, or county of Venaiſſin, by the name of the department of Vaucluſe; its chief town Avignon. Savoy has alſo been annexed to the republic, and with a part of Switzerland, forms the departments of Mount Blanc and Mount Terrible; the chief towns of which are Chamberri and Porentrui. Theſe make the number of the departments eighty-nine, to which the French add nine more, into which they have divided the Auſtrian Netherlands, ceded to them by the late treaty of Campo Formio, making thus the whole number ninety-eight; but as theſe latter have been ſo lately added, and the war between France and the emperor has now re-commenced; they can ſcarcely, as yet, be conſidered as forming a part of France.

1. *Air, Climate, Soil, and Water.*

S. Is the air of France ſalutary?

M. Yes, particularly in the interior parts, where it is equally

equally exempt from the extremities of heat and cold. The weather is more clear and ſettled than in England; but in the northern parts the winters are generally intenſely cold.

S. Is the ſoil good?

M. It varies greatly according to its ſituation, being in ſome places very rich, and in others very poor. The French fall much below us in huſbandry, but they greatly exceed us in the culture of vines, which produce different kinds of moſt valuable wines. Their fruit is alſo much higher flavoured than ours. They have very little paſture land, for the heats, in many parts, burn up the ground, and deſtroy all the verdure; but in general they have excellent crops of corn.

S. Is France well ſupplied with water?

M. Yes; and the inhabitants have moſt excellent contrivances for rendering it of ſervice to their lands.

2. *Vegetable and Animal Productions.*

S. What are the vegetable productions of France?

M. Excellent corn, hemp, flax, ſaffron, roots of all kinds, and ſalads. But I have already obſerved, that the French chiefly employ themſelves in the culture of their vines: and indeed they are well rewarded by the excellent grapes they produce. The wines of France are at this time ſo well known, that it would be needleſs to expatiate on their goodneſs.

S. Are there any animals peculiar to France?

M. None, wolves and wild boars excepted, that are not to be found in England. Their horſes are far inferior to ours, of which, in time of peace, they every year import great numbers.

3. *Mountains and Foreſts.*

S. What are the names of the principal mountains in France?

M. The Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which ſeparate it from Spain; the Voſges which give name to one of the departments; Mount Jura which divides it from Switzerland; the Cevennes in the late province

vince of Languedoc, and Mount d'Or, in the department of Puy de Dome.

S. Are there any foreſts in this kingdom?

M. The chief are thoſe of Orleans and Fontainbleau; the former contains fourteen thouſand acres, planted with oak, elm, aſh &c. The latter is nearly as large: beſides theſe, there is another near Morchiſmoir, a very conſiderable one. France likewiſe contains great numbers of woods, which are ſome of them large enough to claim the appellation of foreſts.

4. *Metals and Minerals.*

S. What mines does France contain?

M. Several; particularly one in the late province of Languedoc, which is ſuppoſed to contain veins of gold and ſilver. Brittany abounds in mines of iron, copper, and lead. Jaſper, alabaſter, ſlate, black marble, and free ſtone, are found in many parts of the kingdom, and great care is taken to keep the quarries of the two latter open. In Alſace, now the departments of the Upper and Lower Rhine, there are unwrought mines of ſilver and copper: at Laverdan, in the department of the Upper Garonne, is a mine of chalk; and at Berry another of ochre, which is uſed in painting and ſmelting of metals. In ſome parts of the late province of Languedoc, are found excellent turquoiſes, the only gem which France produces.

5. *Rivers, Lakes, Mineral Waters, and remarkable Springs.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers in France?

M. The Rhone; the Soane; the Garonne; the Charente; the Loire; the Seine; the Rhine; the Mæſe or Meuſe; the Schelde; the Somme, and the Var. There are alſo ſeveral little rivers which it would be tedious to particularize, though they greatly contribute to facilitate the inland navigation of France, which is likewiſe amazingly improved by canals, chiefly planned and executed in the reign of Louis XIV.

S. Are there any lakes in that kingdom?

M. Very few: there is one at the top of a hill near Alegre,

Alegre, reported to be bottomleſs; a ſecond at La Beſſe, into which if you throw a ſtone it cauſes a noiſe reſembling thunder; and a third at Iſſoire in Puy de Dome.

S. Is not France famous for its mineral waters?

M. Yes; and at particular ſeaſons of the year they are reſorted to by perſons of all nations. The waters of Bareges, near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, are now preferred to all the reſt. At Baguciis, near Bareges, are ſeveral ſalutary mineral waters and baths; as there alſo are at Forges in Normandy, Sultzbach in Alſace, and at St. Amand.

S. Are there any remarkable ſprings?

M. Several; particularly one near Aigne in Puy de Dome, which boils violently, and makes a hiſſing noiſe like water when thrown upon lime. This water has no taſte, but is of a poiſonous quality, and the birds that drink of it expire immediately.

6. *Inhabitants, Cuſtoms, Language.*

S. What is the character of the French?

M. They are generally of low ſtature, but well proportioned and extremely active; naturally gay and ſprightly, you ſeldom find them dejected by misfortunes. They pretend to an exceſs of politeneſs, which thoſe in a higher ſphere in life confine to its juſt bounds; but with the middling claſs, it often degenerates into a troubleſome officiouſneſs and ſervility. They are exceedingly vain, giddy, and perpetually employed in the moſt trifling purſuits. The French married ladies enjoy the moſt unbounded freedom; the huſband placing his chief delight in introducing his wife into company, and ſeeing her admired. This nation has been always cenſured for its inſincerity; but whether that character is due to the French in general, or only to the few who are concerned in politics, is a queſtion which ſhould be maturely conſidered before ſentence is paſſed upon the whole.

S. What are the particular diverſions of the French?

M. The nobility and gentry fence, dance, and ride. They are alſo very fond of hunting, but take that diverſion in a leſs fatiguing manner than our fox hunters; they frequent operas, plays, and gaming tables. Great part of their

their time is paſſed in viſiting each other, taking the air in their carriages, and walking in the public gardens.

S. What is the language of France?

M. The French language is chiefly compoſed of words radically Latin with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is, perhaps, the moſt univerſal of all the living languages, and is at this time ſpoken in every court in Europe. It may, however, be conſidered as on the decline, the modern French having introduced a great variety of novel and affected terms, and too much neglecting that purity of expreſſion which alone can render a language claſſical and permanent.

S. What is the number of inhabitants in France?

M. According to the lateſt computation, they amount to nearly 25 millions.

7. *Religion, Learning, and Learned Men.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion in France?

M. Before the revolution it was the Roman catholic: but it has been declared by the new conſtitution that there is no predominant religion in France, patronized by the ſtate, but that all ſects and modes of worſhip ſhall enjoy equal toleration. The territorial poſſeſſions of the Gallican church have been claimed as national property, and diſpoſed of through the medium of a paper money, called aſſignats, for the creditors of the ſtate; and the clergy made dependent upon penſionary eſtabliſhments, paid out of the national treaſury. All monaſtic eſtabliſhments are ſuppreſſed, and the clergy are required to take an oath to obſerve the laws of the preſent conſtitution.

S. Is France famous for learning?

M. During the reign of Francis I. many learned men reſided in France; among whom was the famous Des Cartes, but it was not till the ſeventeenth century that elegance was introduced into the writings of the French. When Lewis XIV. aſcended the throne of that kingdom, he gave great encouragement to letters, and beſtowed large penſions on learned men.

S. What are the names of the moſt eminent geniuſſes of France?

M. Racine,

M. Racine, Corneille, Moliere. Boileau, Fontaine. Boſſuet, Paſcal, Monteſquieu, Maupertius, Claraut, Bouger, Buffon, d'Alembert, Voltaire, &c. &c.

8. *Commerce, and Manufactures.*

S. In what do the principal manufactures of France conſiſt?

M. In lace, cambric, lawn, tapeſtry, ſilk, velvets, brocades, alamodes, woollen cloths, gun locks, ſword blades, toys, hats, paper, threads, tapes, ribbons, and other haberdaſhery ware; ſalt petre, linen, ſail cloth, and ſoap.

S. Is the foreign trade of France extenſive?

M. Before the preſent war it was; but the fleets of England by ruining the French navy, and blocking it up in its ports, have now nearly annihilated it.

9. *Antiquities and Curioſities.*

S. What are the moſt remarkable antiquities in France?

M. Two triumphal arches, the one at Orange and the other at Rheims, almoſt entire. At Niſmes, many ancient ruins are to be found, among which is the temple of Diana, the amphitheatre, and a houſe erected by the emperor Adrian called the Maiſon Quarrée. The celebrated Pont du Garde was raiſed by the Roman colony at Niſmes, to convey a ſtream of water over a valley between two mountains, for the uſe of that city; and continues to this time in the moſt perfect repair: it conſiſts of three bridges or tiers of arches raiſed one above another, the height being 174 feet and the length 723. At Arles in the department of the eaſtern Pyrenees, is a Roman obeliſk of granite, 52 feet high, and ſeven in diameter at the baſe, all of one ſtone. Roman temples are to be met with in many parts of France, beſides other monuments of antiquity, which it would be tedious to particularize.

S. Are there no natural curioſities in France?

M. The ſprings I have already mentioned may be juſtly eſteemed ſuch; beſides which there is a ſubterranean cavern in the foreſt of St. Aubin du Cormier, in Bretagne, through which there flows a rapid torrent of water; and another near

near Nious, from which iſſues a violent wind. In Alſace, there is a cavern, out of which flows an oily liquor; and at Salins, in Burgundy, are ſeveral, remarkable for their ſalt ſprings. The cave of our lady de Beaume in Dauphine, is between four and five fathoms broad, and from five to eight deep; and at Beſançon is another above three hundred feet under ground, in the bottom of which is a ſmall river frozen in ſummer, and flowing in winter.

10. *Conſtitution, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution of France?

M. The old conſtitution of France was monarchical, and entirely deſpotic, what were called the parliaments having very little power; but by the revolution in 1789, a *new conſtitution* was founded upon the principle that all men are free and equal in their rights. After the death of the late king in the year 1793, another conſtitution was framed and adopted, which was again ſucceeded by another, uſually called *the conſtitution of the third year.* This ſtill remains in force, at leaſt nominally; for on certain occaſions we have ſeen the ruling party exerciſe a revolutionary power not circumſcribed by the limits of any conſtitution.

By this conſtitution every man born and reſident in France, who is twenty-one years of age, has inſcribed his name in the civic regiſter, lived one year on the territory of the republic, and pays a direct contribution, is a French citizen. Foreigners are naturalized by ſeven years reſidence, or marrying a French woman.

The government is veſted in the legiſlative body and a directory of five members. The legiſlative body is compoſed of a council of ancients of two hundred and fifty members, and a council of five hundred. The members of theſe councils are elected by the people who meet in full right, on the 1ſt of Germinal (March 21) of each year, in what are called *primary aſſemblies*, and nominate one elector for every two hundred citizens, which electors compoſe the *electoral aſſemblies*, and chooſe as there may be occaſion, the members of the legiſlative body, the judges of the civil tribunals, and other magiſtrates

One third of the members of each of the councils compoſing the legiſlative body is renewed every year; the members,

bers, therefore, are three years in the exerciſe of their functions. They may be re-elected immediately once; after which there muſt be an interval of two years, before they can be elected again.

The members of the directory muſt be forty years of age, at leaſt, and muſt have been members of the legiſlative body, or general agents of the execution; but cannot be choſen till the expiration of one year after they have ceaſed to be members of the legiſlative body. The directory is partially renewed by the election of a new member every year. None of the members who have thus gone out, can be re elected till after an interval of five years. The directory provides, according to the laws, for the external and internal ſecurity of the republic, it diſpoſes of the armed force, chooſes the generals, and ſuperintends the execution of the laws and the coining of money.

Such is the outline of the French conſtitution, as it ſtands at preſent: how long it may remain unaltered by a new revolution time muſt diſcover.

S. What may the revenues of France be eſtimated at?

M. Under the old government, in the year 1788, the year preceding the commencement of the revolution, the revenue was twenty millions and a half ſterling; and the ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue five millions and a half. At preſent it would not be eaſy to aſcertain the revenue with any accuracy. The immenſe expenditure which muſt have been incurred by the war, or occaſioned by the revolution, has been principally defrayed by the ſale of the church and crown lands, or as they are termed the national domains, the confiſcations of individual property, and the plunder of conquered countries.

S. Are not all titles of nobility and orders of knighthood aboliſhed in France?

M. Yes, the conſtitution declares, that "there is no longer any nobility, nor peerage, nor hereditary diſtinctions, nor difference of orders, nor feudal government, nor patrimonial juriſdiction, nor any of the titles, denominations and prerogatives, which are derived from them; nor any of the orders of chivalry, corporations or decorations, for which proofs of nobility were required, nor any kind of ſuperiority but that of public functionaries in the exerciſe of their functions." By this decree all armorial bearings and the

the uſe of liveries are forbidden. No perſon is to ſpeak to or of another by any other title than that of *Citizen*, and the uſe of the word *Monſieur*, which was beginning to be reſtored, has lately been very ſtrictly prohibited.

11. *Univerſities and Colleges.*

S. How many univerſities and public colleges are there in France?

M. Twenty-eight; viz. Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Beſançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, Flecke, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Pont Mouſon, Richlieu, Rheims, Soiſſons, Straſburgh, Toulouſe, Tournois, and Valence.

12. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. Have hiſtorians tranſmitted to us any ſatisfactory account of France?

M. The hiſtory of no nation whatever is better authenticated. The Romans called it Tranſalpine Gaul or Gaul beyond the Alps, to diſtinguiſh it from Ciſalpine Gaul, on the Italian ſide the Alps, and moſt authors ſuppoſe that it was firſt peopled from Italy. Julius Cæſar having conquered this country, it remained in the poſſeſſion of the Romans till the deſtruction of that empire, when it became a prey to the Burgundians, Goths, and Franks; the latter giving it the name of France or Frankenland. Clovis is ſuppoſed to have been the firſt chriſtian king of the Franks, and to have begun his reign in the year 468. From that period to the year 800, at which time Charlemagne ſwayed the ſcepter of France, this nation was engaged in continual war, and other misfortunes. About the year 900, the Normans, a warlike people, who reſided in the northern parts of Europe, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne, which laid the foundation of the Norman power in France. About the year 1066, the great merit of Cruſades, or expeditions to the Holy Land was preached up by order of the pope, and France, among the reſt of the European powers, madly engaged in the undertaking. Lewis VII. who aſcended the throne in 1137, divorced his conſort, who was heireſs of Guienne and Poitou, and gave her back

all

all her hereditary dominions. Henry II. of England having married this lady, in her right became poſſeſſed of ſome of the fineſt provinces in France. After the death of Lewis VII his ſon Philip II. taking advantage of the inteſtine commotions which at that time raged in England, ſeized upon ſome of their poſſeſſions in France, and gave the Engliſh cauſe to expect his conqueſt would be extended even to their own ſhores. But that prince dying, he was ſucceeded by Lewis VIII. whoſe reign was very ſhort, when Lewis IX. or St. Lewis, aſcended the throne, and was killed in 1220, at the ſiege of Tunis. In his ſon and ſucceſſor, Robert, began the line of Bourbon, which afterwards poſſeſſed the three crowns of France, Spain, and Naples. In 1328 the ſucceſſion to the crown of France was diſputed by Edward III. of England, and Philip of Valois; but the latter having obtained it from the peers of France, a war enſued, wherein the Engliſh gained the famous battles of Creſſy and Poictiers, at the latter of which John. heir to the crown of France, and his ſon were taken priſoners. During the reign of Philip Humbert, the laſt count of Dauphiny, he annexed that province to the crown, on condition that the eldeſt ſon of France ſhould always bear the title of Dauphin. John ſucceeded to the crown in 1350, but did not leave England till after the treaty of Bretagne in 1360, during which period France was nearly ruined, by foreign and civil wars. John, from what motive ſtill remains a doubt, returned to England, where in 1364, he died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Charles V. who recovered from the Engliſh great part of their conqueſts in France, and was making preparations for entirely extirpating them, when death put a ſtop to his deſigns. His ſon Charles VI. aſcended the throne; but being unfortunately ſeized with a phrenzy, the kingdom was torn to pieces by the conteſt which enſued between the dukes of Orleans and Burgundy for the regency. Henry V. of England now invaded France, and having gained the battle of Agincourt, married the French king's daughter, in whoſe right he was to ſucceed to that crown; but in 1422, both Henry V. and Charles VI. paid the great debt of nature.

S. How was the ſucceſſion ſettled?

M. The dauphin aſſumed the title of Charles VII. and was

was aſſiſted by the Scots, againſt the Engliſh, who had proclaimed Henry VI. then an infant, king of France, and appointed his uncle the duke of Bedford regent of that kingdom. The intereſt of Henry was ſo well ſupported, that Charles muſt have relinquiſhed his title to the crown, had it not been for the maid of Orleans, whoſe ſtory I have already made you acquainted with in the hiſtorical events of England. Aſſiſted more by the credulity of the times, than any merit of her own, ſhe was the chief means of driving the Engliſh out of France, and fixing Charles VII. on the throne. That monarch dying in 1461 was ſucceeded by his ſon Lewis XI. the moſt deteſtable prince that ever ſwayed a ſcepter. Having lived in perpetual apprehenſion of being poiſoned by his own domeſticks till the year 1483, he died, and Charles VIII. his ſon, aſcended the throne. This monarch, by marrying Anne of Brittany, annexed that duchy to the crown of France. He undertook and effected the conqueſt of Naples, but loſt that crown almoſt as ſoon as he had gained it. Dying in 1498, without male iſſue, he was ſucceeded by the duke of Orleans, Lewis XII. all females being by the Salique law excluded from inheriting the crown of France. This monarch married, for his ſecond conſort, Mary, ſiſter to Henry VIII. of England, but ſurvived his nuptials a few months only, and leaving no ſons, Francis I. count of Angoulême aſcended the throne. This monarch was brave, but unſucceſsful in moſt of his wars, notwithſtanding which, at the time of his death, which happened in 1547, France was in a very flouriſhing ſtate. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Henry II. who cauſed the dauphin to marry Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to the crown of France. Henry being engaged in a tilting match was unfortunately killed: upon which his ſon Francis II. aſcended the throne, who being a weak prince, ſuffered his wife's uncle the duke of Guiſe, to have the ſole management of affairs. In the year 1560, Francis died, and was ſucceeded by his brother Charles IX. who being then a minor, the adminiſtration fell into the hands of Catherine de Medicis the queen mother, whoſe regency was a continued ſcene of treachery, diſſimulation, and murder, ſo that from that period till the year 1593, France was diſtracted by civil wars. Henry IV. having with difficulty

ficulty aſcended the throne of France. re-eſtabliſhed tranquillity in his kingdom, and was juſt ſetting out on a ſecret expedition, for which he had made great preparations when he was aſſaſſinated in his coach by a young enthuſiaſt, named Ravaillac. His ſon, Lewis XIII. having aſcended the throne, and choſen the celebrated Richlieu for his miniſter, an end was put to the wars which had for ſome years ſubſiſted in France between the proteſtants. or hugonots, and the papiſts. In 1643, this monarch died, leaving his ſon, Lewis XIV. a minor. During the regency of Anne of Auſtria, the queen mother, who choſe Mazarine for her prime miniſter; France was once more almoſt deſtroyed by faction. Lewis. having aſſumed the reigns of government, on the death of Mazarine, made Colbert miniſter, who omitted nothing that could contribute to the glory of France. Lewis XIV. was engaged in ſeveral wars with England, which have already been mentioned in the account given of England. He died on the firſt of September 17 5, and was ſucceeded by his great grandſon Lewis XV. then a minor, the government being adminiſtered by the duke of Orleans, as regent, till 1722, when the king was declared of age.

One of the firſt acts of the government of Lewis XV. was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his firſt miniſter. Though his ſyſtem was entirely pacific, the ſituation of affairs in Europe on the death of the king of Poland, in 1734, more than once embroiled him with the houſe of Auſtria. The intention of the French king was to place his father in law, Staniſlaus, on the throne of Poland. In this he failed through the interpoſition of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians; but Staniſlaus enjoyed the title of king and the revenues of Lorraine during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain, forced the former to become a principal in a war againſt Great Britain, which was terminated by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748. The principal events of this war, and of that which was terminated by the peace of Fontainebleau, in 1763, having been already mentioned in the ſummary of the hiſtory of England, need not be recapitulated here.

In the year 1761 the parliaments of France entered into a conteſt with the Jeſuits relative to certain fraudulent mercantile

mercantile tranſactions; and, in the following year, ſuits were likewiſe commenced againſt them on account of the pernicious tendency of their principles and writings, which ended in all their colleges being ſeized, their effects confiſcated, and themſelves finally expelled the kingdom by a ſolemn edict, by which the order of Jeſus was entirely aboliſhed in France.

Elated with this victory over eccleſiaſtical tyranny, the French parliaments attempted to ſet bounds to the abſolute power of the crown, and ſeemed determined to confine it within the limits of law. Not ſatisfied with refuſing, as uſual, to regiſter certain oppreſſive edicts, or with remonſtrating againſt them, they ordered criminal proſecutions to be commenced againſt the governors of ſeveral provinces, acting in the king's name, who had enforced the regiſtration of thoſe edicts. The ſpirit and reſolution of theſe aſſemblies, who repeatedly braved the utmoſt reſentment of the court, had awakened new ideas in the boſoms of the French, and taught them to claim their inherent rights; thus exciting a flame, which, in the ſucceeding reign, burſt forth with accumulated force, and overwhelmed the throne.

Lewis XV. was ſucceeded, on the 10th of May, 1774, by his grandſon, the late unfortunate king, Lewis XVI. At his acceſſion ſeveral regulations were made highly favourable to the general intereſts of the nation; but the French government entering ſoon after into the American war, with a view, according to the uſual policy of ſtates, to weaken a rival nation, by detaching the colonies from Great Britain, the finances of France, which were before in a very deranged ſtate, were reduced to the laſt extremity, and threatened with utter ruin. To retrieve them Lewis was induced to convoke, firſt an aſſembly of the notables, or principal men in the kingdom, and afterwards (their deliberations having produced no ſatisfactory effect) the ſtates general, which had not been aſſembled ſince the year 1614. Theſe conſiſted of three orders, the nobility, the clergy, and the third eſtate, or commons. The laſt were double the number of the other two orders, and when the ſtates aſſembled at Verſailles, on the 5th of May 1789, a conteſt aroſe whether the three orders ſhould form three diſtinct houſes, as had before been uſual, or but

one aſſembly. The third eſtate inſiſted upon the latter, and, aſſuming the title of the National Aſſembly, declared that they were competent to proceed to buſineſs, without the concurrence of the other two orders, if they refuſed to join them. The nobility and clergy found it in vain to reſiſt, and the whole body met in one hall. In the mean time Paris was encircled by 50,000 men with the apparent view of coercing that city. Notwithſtanding this, on the removal of the popular miniſter M. Neckar. in July, a dreadful inſurrection enſued on the 14th of that month in Paris; the military refuſed to fire upon the people: the Baſtile was taken by the citizens, and the governor and ſome others were beheaded, and their heads carried about on poles. The next morning the king went to the national aſſembly, and declared his intention of going to Paris on the following day; and accordingly, on the 17th, repaired to the Hotel de Ville, where he was received by the people with the moſt extravagant expreſſions of triumph and joy. In October, in conſequence of a moſt dreadful riot at Verſailles, the king, the royal family, and the national aſſembly removed to Paris, where the monarch became, in fact little other than a ſtate priſoner, though treated with the external formalities ſhewn to royalty. From this ſituation he attempted to eſcape, in June 1791, with the queen, his ſiſter, the dauphin, and his daughter; but they were ſtopped at Varennes, and brought back to Paris. Such, however, was the moderation of the popular party, that the national aſſembly admitted the king's explanation of his conduct. and declared his perſon inviolable. This was one of the articles of the new conſtitution, which they completed ſoon after, and which was accepted by the king in September, immediately after which a new national aſſembly was elected. Between this aſſembly and the king. harmony did not long continue. Some of their decrees he refuſed to ſanction and many could not fail to give him offence by reminding him of his loſt power.

The proceedings of Auſtria in the mean time, which had a very hoſtile appearance, excited great jealouſies in France, and in April 1792. the king, by the advice of his miniſter, went to the national aſſembly. and propoſed to them to declare war againſt the king of Hungary and Bohemia. War

was accordingly declared, but the unfortunate Lewis was ſuſpected of acting in concert with the enemy. The French, in the beginning of the war, were very ſucceſsful; the king of Pruſſia and the duke of Brunſwick entered France with a powerful army, and publiſhed a menacing manifeſto, declaring their determination to reſtrain the anarchy which prevailed in France, and reſtore the king to his legitimate power. The people of Paris were ſeized with a panic, and dreadful riots and maſſacre enſued. The national aſſembly decreed the ſuſpenſion of royalty and the convocation of a national convention, which met on the 21ſt of September, and decreed France a republic. In December the ſame convention decreed that the king ſhould be tried before them. The trial accordingly took place, and this tribunal, (notwithſtanding the conſtitution had declared the perſon of the king inviolable) condemned the unfortunate monarch, who was beheaded in the *Place de la Revolution*, lately the *Place de Louis* XV. on the 21ſt of January 1793. All Europe exclaimed againſt the injuſtice and cruelty of this proceeding. Powers hitherto neutral were eager to take part in the war; and the new republic, in addition to the arms of Auſtria, Pruſſia, Sardinia, and the empire, had to encounter the combination of Great Britain, Spain, and the United Provinces. The queen did not long ſurvive her conſort; being tried and condemned by the revolutionary tribunal, ſhe was executed in the ſame place, on the 16th of October of the ſame year. Her fate was a prelude to that of the princeſs Elizabeth, the king's ſiſter, who was alſo beheaded in the ſame place, on the 10th of May 1794. The dauphin and his ſiſter remained in confinement; where the former became diſeaſed with ſwellings, which brought on a fever, and he died on the 8th of June 1795. The princeſs was conveyed in the December following, to a place near Baſle in Swiſſerland, where ſhe was exchanged for ſome French deputies, who had been for ſome time priſoners to the emperor, and arrived at Vienna on the 9th of January 1796.

After the death of the king, various factions ſucceſſively ſeized the helm of government, and, in their turn were overthrown. During the tyrannical adminiſtration of Robeſpierre, the priſons were crouded in every part

of the republic, the ſcaffolds ſtreamed almoſt inceſſantly with blood, and many of the moſt popular patriots, and even of thoſe who had voted for the death of the king, periſhed on the ſcaffold, or in exile and miſery; while inſurrections, proſcriptions, and maſſacres, became in a manner, only common occurrences. Robeſpierre, and a number of his aſſociates, were however brought to the guillotine on the 28th of July, 1794, and the reign of deſpotiſm and terror gave place to a more moderate ſyſtem. In the following year a new conſtitution, commonly called the conſtitution of the third year, and which is ſtill in force, was framed and accepted by the people.

In the mean time the armies of the new republic were ſucceſsful on every ſide againſt the allies. In the year 1794, they compelled the Auſtrians entirely to abandon the Netherlands, and early in 1795 entered Holland with a powerful army, forced the Stadtholder to take refuge in England, and eſtabliſhed a Batavian republic on principles ſimilar to their own. They alſo obtained complete poſſeſſion of Savoy, and made ſuch a progreſs in Germany and Spain that the king of Pruſſia and his Catholic Majeſty thought it prudent to deſert the cauſe of the allies, and conclude ſeparate treaties of peace. In Italy the celebrated general Buonaparte defeated the Auſtrians in a number of battles, took Mantua and the whole of the Milaneſe, and founded a new republic called the Ciſalpine republic, with a form of government ſimilar to that of France; after which the victorious army penetrated through the Tyrol, and threatened the imperial capital, where the alarm was ſo great that the emperor thought it expedient to open a negotiation with Buonaparte, and the preliminaries of peace between the emperor and king of Hungary, and the French republic, were ſigned at Leobon, in the month of April, 1797.

In the mean time a tumult having taken place in Venice, in which a number of the French ſoldiers were murdered in the hoſpitals of that city, the French armies, on their return, aboliſhed the ancient government of Venice, planted the tree of liberty in St. Mark's Place, eſtabliſhed a municipality, and propoſed to annex the city and territory to the new Ciſalpine republic. But the concluſion of the definitive treaty of peace with the emperor being pro-

tracted on account of the French refuſing to reſtore Mantua, which the emperor was unwilling to reſign; they at length agreed to cede to him the city and a part of the territory of Venice in compenſation for Mantua.

The definitive treaty of peace between France and the emperor was ſigned at Campo Formio, on the 17th of October, 1797. By this treaty the emperor ceded to France the whole of the Netherlands, and all his former territory in Italy. He received in return the city of Venice, Iſtria and Dalmatia, and the Venetian iſlands in the Adriatic: the French were to poſſeſs the other Venetian iſlands.

A congreſs of deputies from the different States of Germany met at Raſtadt in the beginning of 1798, to negociate a peace for the empire with French plenipotentiaries appointed for that purpoſe.

A ſecret expedition was ſoon after fitted out at Toulon, in which was embarked the veteran troops of the army of Italy, and their celebrated general Buonaparte, who took Malta, and, landing in Egypt, defeated the forces of the beys in ſeveral engagements, and made himſelf maſter of nearly the whole of the country; after which he advanced into Syria, and took ſeveral ſtrong places in that country. The fleet however, under the command of Admiral Brueys, was entirely defeated, and, in fact, deſtroyed by Admiral Nelſon at Aboukir, near Alexandria, on the 1ſt of Auguſt, 1798, as has been already related in the ſummary of the hiſtorical events of England.

In the mean time the congreſs at Raſtadt came to no final adjuſtment; but during its continuance the French obtained poſſeſſion of Mentz, and forced Ehrenbreitſtein to ſurrender by a blockade; the emperor of Germany formed an alliance with Ruſſia; the Turks declared againſt France, on account of the invaſion of Egypt; and the flames of war, which had been for a time ſuppreſſed, burſt forth with redoubled fury. The French having remonſtrated to the emperor on the march of the Ruſſian troops, and received no ſatisfactory anſwer, paſſed the Rhine under general Jourdan, on the 5th of March. 1799. Hoſtilities were at the ſame time commenced by the French troops in the Griſon country, where they gained ſeveral advantages; but on the 25th of March, the army under Jourdan ſuffered a complete defeat by the

Archduke Charles, near Stockach, and was compelled to recroſs the Rhine. The Ruſſian troops, under general Suwarrow, ſoon after joined the Auſtrian army in Italy, of which that general took the command, and having defeated the French near Milan, entered that city, and over-ran the whole of the new Ciſalpine republic. In fine, the ſucceſs of the allied armies has been ſo deciſive and uninterrupted, that it ſeems not improbable that the prodigious coloſſus of French power which ſo haſtily was erected may be deſtroyed as rapidly.

DIALOGUE XI.

Spain.

THIS kingdom lies between 36 and 44 deg. of north latitude, and between 10 deg. weſt, and 3 deg. eaſt longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Bay of Biſcay, and the Pyrenean mountains; on the ſouth by the ſtreights of Gibraltar; on the eaſt by the Mediterranean ſea; and on the weſt by Portugal, and the Atlantic ocean.

S. What are the principal dimenſions of Spain?

M. It is about 700 miles in length, and 500 in breadth; and contains an area of 150,263 ſquare miles. Mr. Templeman has given us the following table of the ſquare miles contained in each of the diviſions of Spain.

Countries Names.	*Square Miles.*	*Chief Cities.*
Caſtile, New, - - -	27,840	Madrid.
Andaluſia, - - - -	16,500	Seville.
Caſtile, Old, - - -	14,400	Burgos.
Arragon, - - - - -	13,818	Saragoſa.
Eſtremadura, - - -	12,600	Badajos.
Galicia, - - - - -	12,000	Compoſtella.
Leon, - - - - - -	11,200	Leon.
Catalonia, - - - -	9,000	Barcelona.
Granada, - - - -	8,100	Granada.
Valencia, - - - - -	6,800	Valencia.
Biſcay and Ipuſcoa, - -	4,760	Bilboa.
Aſturia, - - - - -	4,600	Oviedo.
Murcia, - - - - -	3,600	Murcia.
Navarre, - - - - -	3,000	Pampelona.
In the Mediterranean. Majorca, I. -	1,400	Majorca.
Yvica, I. - -	625	Yvica.
Total, -	150,263	

1. *Soil, Air, and Water.*

S. Is the air of Spain ſalutary?

M. In general it is, except during the equinoctial rains, when it is heavy; at other times it is dry and ſerene. In the ſouthern provinces the ſummer quarter is intenſely hot, and would be inſupportable to the inhabitants, were it not for the refreſhing breezes which blow from the mountains that run through Spain. In winter it is very cold, eſpecially in the night, in the north and north-eaſt parts of the kingdom.

S. Is the ſoil fruitful?

M. Exceedingly ſo; and formerly produced great plenty of corn, of which the preſent natives, from their extreme indolence in not cultivating the lands, often feel a ſcarcity.

S. Have they any ſprings?

M. A great variety of medicinal ones, both hot and cold, which are very ſalutary: the kingdom of Granada in particular abounds in them.

2. *Rivers, Lakes, and Bays.*

S. What are the principal rivers in Spain?

M. The Douro, formerly Durius; the Ebro, formerly Iberus; the Guadalavias, anciently the Turias; and the Tajo, formerly the Tagus.

S. Are there any lakes in Spain?

M. Several; among others is the lake Benevente, in the center of which is a rock, whereon a nobleman's houſe is built. This lake abounds in fiſh, and the current in the middle is ſo violent, that the waves riſe like thoſe of the ſea. On the top of the Pyrenees there is likewiſe a lake of vaſt depth, which abounds with excellent trout; and near Antequera there is a lake, the water of which, evaporated by the heat of the ſun, leaves a cruſt of ſalt.

S. Are there any bays?

M. Yes; the principal of which are Corunna, commonly called the Groyne, Biſcay, Cadiz, Carthagena, Ferrol, Vigo, Alicant, Altea, Gibraltar, the ſtreight of which divides Europe from Africa, Roſas, and Valentia.

3. *Mountains, Mines, and Minerals.*

S. Are there any mountains in Spain?

M. The whole country abounds with them, but the moſt remarkable are the Pyrenees, which extending from the Bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean, divide Spain from France, and are near two hundred miles in length.

S. Is not Spain famous for its mines and minerals?

M. It formerly abounded in gold and ſilver mines, which the Spaniards have diſcontinued working for many years, probably more from their indolence, than the treaſure's being exhauſted. Moſt of their mountains have mines of quickſilver, copper, lead, and iron, the latter being eſteemed next to that of Damaſcus. Great quantities of marble, jaſper, alabaſter, jet, agate, corneliah, garnets, and ſometimes diamonds, emeralds, and amethyſts, are found here. They have likewiſe a great plenty of calamine, ſulphur, allum, and other minerals.

4. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. Are there any animals peculiar to Spain?

M. None; but this country is much infeſted by wolves, and the foreſts of New Caſtile are filled with wild bulls, and other beaſts. The Spaniſh horſes are held in high eſteem all over Europe, both for beauty and ſwiftneſs. The lakes and rivers abound in fiſh, and the anchovy is caught here and cured in great perfection. Here is likewiſe great numbers of moſt ſpecies of wild and tame fowl.

S. What are the vegetable productions of Spain?

M. Every thing peculiar to a warm climate flouriſhes in this country; oranges, lemons, citrons, melons, &c. grow almoſt ſpontaneouſly. Vines are here found in their higheſt perfection, as the rich flavour of their wines particularly teſtify. The fruitful paſtures of Spain feed great numbers of ſheep, whoſe wool is the fineſt in the world; and the profuſion of aromatic herbs, which grow wild in every part of this country, renders their mutton and kid exquiſitely delicious. Sugar canes are alſo produced in Spain; and it alſo yields ſilk, ſaffron, and honey, in great plenty.

5. *Anti-*

5. *Antiquities and Curioſities.*

S. What antiquities are there in Spain?

M. They are chiefly confined to the remains of buildings erected by the Romans and Moors. A noble aqueduct built by Trajan, near Segovia, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is ſupported by a double row of a hundred and ſeventy arches. Among the Mooriſh antiquities, is the magnificent palace of Granada, the inſide of which is overlaid with jaſper and porphyry.

S. Are there any curioſities in this kingdom?

M. The mineral ſprings I have already mentioned, are eſteemed ſuch; beſides theſe, there are ſeveral lakes, whoſe waters make a violent noiſe; and at Alegria, is a very deep cavern, there being a hundred ſteps down to the entrance: the cave is very long, and all the way on a great deſcent; the farther end of it brings you into a ſort of labyrinth, where there are ſeveral cryſtallizations; this leads you into a cave, much larger than the firſt, and filled with an infinite number of figures in chryſtal. The echo in this cavern is amazing; travellers of veracity have affirmed, that the report of a piſtol will be reverberated for ſeven minutes.

6. *Inhabitants, Manners, Cuſtoms, and Language.*

S. What number of inhabitants are there in Spain?

M. About nine millions.

S. What ſort of people are they?

M. In general tall, and well made; with dark hair and ſwarthy complexions. They are proud to exceſs, but honeſt, generous and humane. Of late years they have loſt much of that formality, both in dreſs and behaviour, for which they were remarkable, even to a proverb. They are extremely temperate in eating and drinking, their breakfaſt conſiſting of chocolate, and their dinner of ſeveral ſorts of meat boiled together, with herbs.

S. What are the principal diverſions of the Spaniards?

M. Dancing and muſic: of the former old and young partake indiſcriminately; and whole nights are frequently

ſpent in the latter by lovers, who in theſe ſerenades pay their devoirs to the lady they moſt admire: bull-feaſts are peculiar to this country, and frequently attended with very diſagreeable conſequences. The theatre at Spain is at a very low ebb; the plays being always inſipid, and frequently degenerating into bombaſt.

S. What is the language of Spain?

M. It is not ſo ſoft, but infinitely more expreſſive than the Italian. The foundation of the Spaniſh language is Latin, of which it would ſeem merely a corruption, were it not for the terminations and exotic words introduced into it by the Moors.

7. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. In what commodities does the trade of Spain conſiſt?

M. Gold and ſilver are the chief articles both of their exports and imports. They have moſt of their wrought ſilks, lace, velvets, and woollen commodities, from England, Italy, France, and Holland, which they tranſport to America by the Galleons, and conſequently great part of the treaſure brought home by theſe fiotas, is circulated among thoſe nations in payment for their goods. This treaſure conſiſts of gold, ſilver, cochineal, indigo, the cocoa, or chocolate nut, tobacco, ſnuff, ſugar, and every other article which that quarter of the world produces.

S. Have the Spaniards no manufactures of their own?

M. Yes; conſiſting of ſilk, wool, iron, copper, and other hardware; but through the extreme indolence of the natives, and their want of hands, they are not in a very flouriſhing condition.

8. *Religion, Learning, and learned Men.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of Spain?

M. The Roman Catholic, which is there practiſed with all its abſurdities. That diabolical tribunal, called the Inquiſition, ſtill ſubſiſts in Spain, to the diſgrace of that country, and the terror of all thoſe reſiding in it, who deviate from the groſs errors of popery.

S. In what ſtate is learning in Spain?

M. Not very flouriſhing, which may be greatly owing to

to the bigotry and indolence of theſe people, which prevents their applying themſelves to the polite arts.

S. What learned men does this country boaſt?

M. Iſidore, biſhop of Seville; cardinal Ximenes; Calderone; Lopez de Vega; Cervantes; Toſtatus; Herrera, De Solis; and Father Feyjo.

9. *Univerſities.*

S. How many univerſities are there in Spain?

M. Twenty-four.

S. What are their names?

M. Toledo; Seville; Salamanca; Valencia; Saragoſſa; Granada: Tortoſa; Valladolid; Lerida; Compoſtella; Alcala; Palencia; Oſſuma; Avila; Grandia; Baneza; Onata; Oviedo; Siguenza; Oriuela; Hueſca; Barcelona; Compoſtella; and Murcia.

10. *Conſtitution, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution of Spain?

M. From the moſt free, it is now become the moſt deſpotic monarchy; it is hereditary, and females ſucceed to the crown.

S. What is the form of government?

M Their parliament, and all the courts of judicature, are under the king's controul. The privy-council is compoſed of a certain number of noblemen, nominated by the ſovereign; but they only meet to prepare matters for the junto, or cabinet council, which always conſiſts of the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, and three or four more, appointed by the king; and in theſe centers the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of Caſtile is the higheſt law tribunal of the kingdom; beſides which, there are the courts of Saragoſſa; Barcelona; Galicia; Valencia; Majorca; Seville; the Canaries; and many other ſubordinate tribunals.

S. What do the revenues of Spain amount to annually?

M. Five millions ſterling; which ariſe from the king's poſſeſſions in America; and the arbitrary taxes upon all

ſorts of goods, houſes, lands, timber, and proviſions; the clergy and military order are all taxed.

Hiſtorical Events.

S. Pleaſe to give me ſome account of the hiſtory of Spain.

M. Spain is the ancient Iberia, or Heſperia, and according to moſt authors, was peopled either from Gaul or Africa. Being conquered by the Romans, it remained in their poſſeſſion till the deſtruction of that empire, and was then ſeized by the Goths. In their turn they were invaded by the Saracens, afterwards called Moors, who eſtabliſhed themſelves in the ſouthern provinces of the kingdom. Don Pelago, a Spaniſh nobleman, about the year 720, took the title of king of Aſturia, and making war upon the Moors, obtained many ſignal advantages over them. His example being followed by many chriſtian princes, Spain was recovered from the infidels, and divided into ſeveral petty kingdoms, every general ſetting himſelf up for a ſovereign, till the year 1475, when all the kingdoms of Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella, afterwards queen of Caſtile. Granada was now taken, and the Moors and Jews, amounting to 170,000 families, were expelled the kingdom.

S. At what period did the Spaniards unite Portugal to the crown of Spain?

M. In the year 1580, on the death of Sebaſtian, king of Portugal, Philip II. king of Spain, ſeized upon that crown, which the Spaniſh monarch enjoyed till the year 1640, when the Portugueſe nobility, oppreſſed by the Spaniſh viceroys, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza upon the throne, by the title of John IV. ſince which Portugal has been a diſtinct kingdom from Spain.

S. How came the family of Bourbon poſſeſſed of the crown of Spain?

M. The Auſtrian race, which had ſet on that throne ſince Philip II. failing in the perſon of Charles II. Philip, duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the dauphin of France, and grandſon to Lewis XIV. by virtue of Charles's laſt will, aſcended

aſcended the throne, and after a long conteſt with the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria, he was by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, confirmed in his dignity. In 1746 he died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand VI. who dying in 1759, without iſſue, Charles III. mounted the throne, who in 1788 was ſucceeded by his ſon Charles IV. the preſent king of Spain. For an account of the preſent wars between England and Spain, and the part taken by Spain in the preſent war with France, I refer you to the hiſtorical events of England and France.

12. *Iſlands of Spain.*

S. What iſlands are there belonging to Spain?

M. The chief, in Europe, are thoſe of Majorca and Yvica. Minorca did formerly belong to Spain, but was conquered by the Engliſh in 1708. The French took it in the war of 1756, but it was reſtored to England at the peace. In the American war the Spaniards retook it. In Aſia, the Spaniards poſſeſs the iſlands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines and Ladrones; and on the coaſt of Barbary in Africa, the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Melilla belong to them.

DIALOGUE XII.

Portugal.

THE kingdom of Portugal is ſituated between 37 and 42 deg. of north latitude, and between 7 and 10 deg. of weſt longitude. It is bounded on the north and eaſt by Spain; and on the ſouth and weſt by the Atlantic ocean.

S. What are the dimenſions of Portugal?

M. It is a very ſmall kingdom; not more than three hundred miles in length, one hundred in breadth, and contains an area of about 25,000 ſquare miles.

S. What are its diviſions?

M. It is divided into three parts, and each of theſe is ſubdivided into provinces, as in the following table.

Diviſions

Divisions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Cities.*
The north division contains,	Entre Minho, Douro, and Tralos Montes.	Braga. Oporto and Viana. Miranda and Villa Real.
The middle division contains,	Beira,	Coimbra. Guarda Castel Rodrigo.
	Estremadura.	Lisbon. St. Ubes and Leira.
The south division contains,	Entre Tajo, Guadiana, Alentejo, Algarva.	Ebora, or Evara. Portalegre, Elvas, Bela, Faro, Taviro, and Silves.

1. *Soil, Air, and Springs.*

S. Is the soil of Portugal fruitful?

M. Not equal to that of Spain, particularly in corn, which the inhabitants are obliged to import; neither have their fruits so high a flavour as those in that country.

S. Is the air salutary?

M. Yes, not being so hot as that of Spain; particularly about Lisbon it is very soft, and esteemed an excellent restorative in consumptive cases.

S. Does Portugal contain any springs?

M. Several; some of which are medicinal, particularly one about forty-five miles from Lisbon, and some hot baths are found in the province of Algarva.

2. *Rivers, Lakes, and Bays.*

S. What are the chief rivers in Portugal?

M. I have already enumerated them in the account I gave you of Spain.

S. Are there any lakes in this kingdom?

M. Yes;

M. Yes; ſome of which abſorb the lighteſt ſubſtances, ſuch as wood, cork, and even feathers.

S. What are the principal bays?

M. Thoſe of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, ſouth of Liſbon, and Lagos bay in Algarva.

3. *Mountains and Mines.*

S. Are there any mountains in Portugal?

M. Yes; the principal of which are thoſe which divide Algarva from Alentejo; thoſe of Tralos Montes; and the rock of Liſbon, ſituate at the entrance of the Tajo.

S. What mines are there in this kingdom?

M. In the province of Eſtremadura there are ſeveral of jet; many parts of the kingdom afford excellent marble; various kinds of precious gems are found in large quantities; and near Liſbon is a fine mine of ſalt petre.

4. *Animal and vegetable Productions.*

S. Are there any animals peculiar to Portugal?

M. None; in general they uſe mules both for draught and carriage, their horſes being very ſlight. The ſheep in the northern provinces of Portugal are eſteemed delicious eating, and the ſea-fiſh on the coaſt are very fine.

S. What are their vegetable productions?

M. The ſame as thoſe of Spain: they are very attentive to the culture of vines; and the wines of this country, when of proper age, are eſteemed very ſalutary.

5. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. In what articles does the trade of the Portugueſe chiefly conſiſt?

M. Their wines, ſalt and fruit, they exchange with England for the Britiſh woollen manufactures. Their plantations in Brazil yield vaſt quantities of gold; ſilver; diamonds; ſugar; Brazil, and other woods for dying; tobacco; gums; and drugs. Their plantations on the eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa are very extenſive; and they carry on a very conſiderable trade in the Eaſt Indies.

S. What are their principal manufactures?

M. They

M. They chiefly conſiſt in a very coarſe woollen cloth, and ſome indifferent ſilks.

6. *Inhabitants, Manners, and Language.*

S. How many inhabitants are there in Portugal?

M. About two millions

S. What ſort of people are the Portugueſe?

M. The men are of a middle ſtature; the women very little. Both ſexes have olive complexions and black eyes. They greatly imitate the Spaniards in their dreſs and behaviour, and are, if poſſible, poſſeſſed of more pride; but they enjoy very little of the honeſty of that people in their dealings with ſtrangers. They are ungrateful, treacherous, and, if they only ſuſpect themſelves injured, will ſtop at nothing to accompliſh their revenge.

S. What is the language ſpoken in Portugal?

M. There is no material difference between that and the Spaniſh.

7. *Antiquities and Curioſities.*

S. Are there any antiquities in Portugal?

M. Like thoſe of Spain, they conſiſt in ruins of Roman and Mooriſh edifices.

S. What curioſities are there in this kingdom?

M. Near Ouguella is a fountain which immediately kills all ſorts of animals flung into it except frogs; and in the neighbourhood of Eſtremos is a ſpring, which in ſummer ſupplies water enough to turn ſeveral mills; but in winter is perfectly dry. I have already mentioned other ſprings in this kingdom which are looked upon as natural curioſities.

8. *Religion, Learning, and learned Men.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of Portugal?

M. The Roman Catholic; and here, as in Spain, the holy, or, to ſpeak more properly, the infernal inquiſition is eſtabliſhed.

S. Does learning flouriſh in Portugal?

M. Quite the contrary: about the middle of the ſixteenth century the Portugueſe were more learned than moſt other

other nations; but at preſent the generality of this nation are totally unacquainted with literature.

9. *Conſtitution, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution of Portugal?

M. Abſolute monarchy: the ſtates, which like the parliaments in England, conſiſt of the clergy, nobility and commons, having no other power than that of giving their aſſent in every new regulation with regard to the ſucceſſion; which may devolve on the female line.

S. What is their form of government?

M. There is a council of ſtate, compoſed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, and a ſecretary, in which all great preferments are diſpoſed of. The Caſa da Supplicaçao is an abſolute court, from which no appeal can be brought. The council of the palace is the higheſt tribunal that can receive appeals. The courts of treaſury regulate the finances; and a council of war all military affairs. The laws of Portugal, all of which have the civil law for their foundation, are contained in three volumes, duodecimo.

S. What may the revenues of Portugal amount to annually?

M. To about three millions and a half ſterling.

10. *Univerſities.*

S. Are there any univerſities in Portugal?

M. Only three, viz. Liſbon, Evora, and Coimbra.

11. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. Have we any good accounts of the hiſtory of Portugal?

M. It is blended with that of Spain, till the latter was recovered from the Moors, after which it was governed by its own kings till the year 1580, when, as I have already obſerved in the hiſtory of Spain, Philip II. poſſeſſed himſelf of this kingdom. In 1640, the Portugueſe ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke. In 1668, Charles II. of England, who had married a princeſs of Portugal, prevailed with Spain

to

to give up all pretenſions to that kingdom. After their revolt from Spain, I have already informed you, that the duke of Braganza aſcended the throne of Portugal by the title of John IV. and his ſon Alphonſo was king of Portugal at the time that Charles exerted himſelf in favour of that kingdom. Alphonſo having quarrelled with his wife and brother, they joined in a conſpiracy againſt him, obliged him to reſign his crown; and having obtained a diſpenſation from the pope, they were afterwards married. Alphonſo likewiſe married again, and had a ſon named John, who ſucceeded to the crown of Portugal, and died in 1750. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, who dying in 1777, Maria-Frances-Iſabella, the preſent queen, aſcended the throne.

DIALOGUE XIII.

The Netherlands.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of the Netherlands?

M. They lie between the 50 and 54 deg. of north latitude, and between the 2 and 7 deg. of eaſt longitude.

S. What are their dimenſions?

M. They are about 300 miles in length, and 200 in breadth, and contain an area of about 7,546 ſquare miles. They are bounded on the north by the German ocean; on the eaſt by Germany; on the weſt by the Britiſh channel; and on the ſouth by France and Lorrain. The Netherlands are generally divided into two parts, the one called the United Provinces, or Batavian Republic; and the other the French and late Auſtrian Netherlands, or Belgium.

1. *The United Provinces.*

S. What is the ſituation of the United Provinces?

M. They are ſituated between 51 and 54 deg. of north latitude, and between 3 and 7 deg. of eaſt longitude.

S. What are the diviſions and dimenſions of the United Provinces?

Before

M. Before the revolution occaſioned by the French invaſion, in 1795, they were as follows,

Countries Names.	*Square Miles.*	*Chief Cities.*
Overiſſel,	1,900	Deventer.
Holland,	1,800	Amſterdam.
Guelderland,	986	Nimiguen.
Frieſland,	810	Leuwarden.
Zutphen,	644	Zutphen.
Groningen,	540	Groningen.
Utrecht,	450	Utrecht.
Zealand,	303	Middleburgh.
Texel and other iſlands,	113	
Total	7,546	

Since the revolution and the eſtabliſhment of a republic on the plan of that of France, the country, including the whole Dutch territory in the Netherlands, has been divided into the following fifteen departments,

Departments.	*Chief Towns.*
Amſterdam,	Amſterdam.
Utrecht,	Utrecht.
Frieſeland,	Leuwarden.
Delft,	Delft.
The Ems,	Groningen.
Rees and Aa,	Aſſem.
North and Zuider-zee,	Alkmaer.
Sparen,	Haarlem.
Yſſel,	Zwoll.
Rhine,	Zutphen.
Merwe,	Dort.
Waal,	Nimeguen.
Scheldt,	Middleburg.
Mark,	Breda.
Meuſe,	Bois le Duc.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. What is the air of the United Provinces?

M. Very foggy and heavy till purified by the froſt, which

which generally continues for four months in the winter, when their harbours are entirely frozen up.

S. Is the ſoil good?

M. By making canals, the inhabitants have rendered it fit for paſture, and in ſeveral places for tillage, but in general the ſoil is very unfavourable to vegetation.

2. *Vegetable and Animal Productions.*

S. Are there any vegetables peculiar to this country?

M. None; but the paſture which the drained bogs and meadows afford, faſten cattle, and cauſe them to grow to a vaſt ſize.

S. What animals are there in the Netherlands?

M. In ſome places they have wild boars and wolves, and in others ſtorks and other birds of paſſage: their horſes are uncommonly large.

S. What fiſh have they?

M. The ſame with England, herrings and oyſters excepted.

3. *Rivers.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers?

M. The Rhine, which on entering Holland forms three branches, called the Waal, the Lech, and the Yſſal. The Vecht, the Maeſe, and the Scheldt, which below Antwerp divides into three branches, the one called the Weſtern Scheldt, and the other the Oſter-Scheldt.

4. *Inhabitants, Manners, and Cuſtoms.*

S. What number of inhabitants do the United Provinces contain?

M. About two millions.

S. By what name are they diſtinguiſhed.

M. By the appellation of the Dutch.

S. What ſort of people are they?

M. Induſtrious, frugal, and, when free from liquor, quiet.

S. What are their peculiar cuſtoms?

M. The Dutch are extremely clean in their houſes; both men

men and women, old and young, ſmoak tobacco. Their country being in a manner covered with canals, they travel, in ſummer, by means of treckſchuyts, or covered boats, drawn by horſes; and in winter they ſcate with wonderful agility from place to place, the women being as dexterous in this method of travelling as the men.

S. Have they any particular diverſions?

M. None different to thoſe uſed in England: they are well acquainted with ſkittles, bowls, cheſs, tennis, billiards, and ſuch field ſports as the nature of their country will allow.

5. *Religion, Learning, and learned Men.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of the United Provinces?

M. The preſbyterian, or Calviniſm, but every ſect of religion is tolerated.

S. What is the ſtate of learning in this country?

M. Very flouriſhing, and few countries can boaſt of more learned men. Eraſmus, Grotius, Boerhaave, Græevius, Burmann, Van Haaren, and Huygens, among many others, were Dutchmen.

6. *Univerſities and Language.*

S. How many univerſities have they?

M. Five, viz. Leyden; Utrecht; Groningen; Harderwicke, and Francker.

S. What is the language of the United Provinces?

M. A corrupt dialect of the German, called Low Dutch; but the people of faſhion ſpeak French and Engliſh.

7. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. In what articles does their commerce chiefly conſiſt?

M. The number is ſo great, that it is almoſt impoſſible to particularize them; for the United Provinces may properly be called the grand magazine of Europe; and there is ſcarcely a manufacture which they do not carry on, or a ſtate with which they do not trade.

8. *Conſtitution,*

8. *Conſtitution, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution of the United Provinces?

M. Before the French entered Holland in January 1795, the United Provinces formed a common confederacy; yet, each province had an internal government. or conſtitution, independent of the reſt, which government was termed the States of that Province; from each of theſe members were deputed who, when aſſembled. formed what were called the States-General, in whom the ſovereignty of the whole confederacy was veſted. The ſtadtholder was preſident of the ſtates of every province; he had no voice in the aſſembly of the ſtates-general, notwithſtanding which he had, indirectly. the ſole management of it; for by his power and influence he could change the deputies, magiſtrates, and officers in every province and city. The preſent ſtadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau, ſon of the late ſtadtholder, William Charles, and of Ann, princeſs royal of Great Britain. This dignity was made hereditary in the houſe of Orange in the year 1747.

S. What was their form of government?

M. There was a council of ſtate compoſed of twelve deputies from the ſeveral provinces, whoſe buſineſs it was to prepare eſtimates, and propoſe ways and means for raiſing the revenues, and ſettling all other affairs that were to be laid before the ſtates-general. The chamber of accounts which was alſo compoſed of provincial deputies, and ſubordinate to the ſtates-general, and the common council of ſtate, audited all public accounts. The admiralty formed a ſeparate board, and the executive part of it was committed to five colleges in the three provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Frieſland. Every province had its tribunal, to which, except in criminal caſes, appeals were made, and ſettled, from the petty and county courts.

S. What is the preſent conſtitution and form of government of theſe provinces?

M. After the departure of the ſtadtholder, on the conqueſt of Holland by the French, in 1795, a convention was aſſembled to adminiſter the government and frame a con-

a conſtitution for the new Batavian Republic. The firſt plan they preſented was rejected by the people in the primary aſſemblies; but another was afterwards drawn up which was accepted. According to this conſtitution, which is a cloſe copy of that of France, the government is veſted in a legiſlative body, conſiſting of two chambers, and a directory: the preſidents of the two chambers are changed every fortnight, and a part of the legiſlative body and the directory go out every year as in France.

S. What are the revenues of the United Provinces ſuppoſed to amount to?

M. Before the late revolution, they were eſtimated at two millions and a half ſterling They were principally derived from an almoſt general exciſe, a land tax, a poll tax, and hearth money. Of this revenue the province of Holland paid nearly half. At preſent, as their trade is almoſt ruined by the war, theſe taxes cannot be ſuppoſed to be by any means ſo productive. To remedy the deficiency ſome new ones have been impoſed, and among others a tax of eight per cent. on income, for the re-eſtabliſhment of their navy, was voted by the convention, immediately after the defeat of their fleet by Admiral Duncan.

9. *Curioſities and Antiquities.*

S. Are there any curioſities in the United Provinces?

M. The ſtadthouſe at Amſterdam may be juſtly eſteemed ſuch: it ſtands upon thirteen thouſand piles driven into the ground; the outſide makes a noble appearance, and the inſide is at once magnificent and convenient Several muſeums, containing antiquities and curioſities, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces; particularly in the univerſity of Leyden. But nothing can exceed the ſurprizing dykes of this country, which are ſeventeen ells thick; theſe, together with their mounds and canals, the Dutch planned and executed, to preſerve their country from thoſe dreadful inundations by which it frequently ſuffered before theſe works were conſtructed.

2. *The*

2. *The French and late Auſtrian Netherlands.*

S. What is the ſituation of the French and Auſtrian Netherlands?

M. Between 49 and 51 deg. of north latitude; and between 2 and 7 deg. of eaſt longitude.

S. What are their dimenſions?

M. They are about two hundred miles in length, and the ſame in breadth.

S. What are the principal diviſions of theſe Netherlands?

M. Before the French revolution and the conqueſt of the Auſtrian Netherlands by France, they were divided into the following ten provinces.

Provinces.	*Chief Towns.*
Brabant,	Bruſſels.
Antwerp,	Antwerp.
Malines,	Mecklin.
Limburg,	Limburg.
Luxemburg,	Luxemberg.
Namur,	Namur.
Hainault,	Mons.
Cambreſis,	Cambray.
Artois,	Arras.
Flanders,	Ghent.

The Auſtrian Netherlands have ſince been ceded to France by the treaty of Campo Formio. They have been decreed an integral part of the French Republic; and divided into the following nine departments.

Departments.	*Chief Towns.*
The Dille,	Bruſſels.
Two Nethes,	Antwerp.
Ourthe,	Liege.
Lys,	Bruges.
Lower Meuſe,	Maeſtricht.
Sambre and Meuſe,	Namur.
Foreſts,	Luxemburg.
Scheldt,	Ghent.
Jemappe,	Mons.

S. What

S. What are the boundaries of theſe Netherlands?

M. They are bounded on the north by the United Provinces; on the ſouth by the departments of the North, Ardennes, the Meuſe and the Moſelle; on the eaſt by Germany; and, on the weſt, by the department of the Straits of Calais, and the Engliſh channel.

S. Do not ſome parts of theſe Netherlands belong to the Dutch?

M. Yes; Dutch Brabant, the chief towns of which are Bois le Duc, Breda and Bergen op Zoom; and Dutch Flanders, the chief towns of which are Sluys, Axel, and Hulſt. Theſe are now included in the fifteen departments of the Batavian Republic before enumerated.

1. *Air, Soil, &c.*

S. Is the air of theſe provinces wholeſome?

M. In Brabant, and upon the coaſt of Flanders, it is very heavy and foggy; but the interior parts are more healthy.

S. Is the ſoil fertile?

M. Exceedingly ſo; producing great quantities of corn and fruits. The paſtures are remarkably fine, and ſuch lands as will not produce corn, bear vaſt crops of flax.

3. *Metals and Minerals.*

S. Are there any mines, or minerals, in theſe provinces?

M. Yes; in Limburg, Luxemburgh, and Liege, there are mines of copper, lead, iron, brimſtone, and ſome quarries of marble.

3. *Rivers and Canals.*

S. What are the names of their principal rivers?

M. The Maeſe, the Demer, the Deule, the Dyle, the Dender, the Nethe, the Sanne, the Rupple, the Lis, the Scheldt, the Sambre, the Geet, and the Scarpe.

S. Have they any canals?

M. Yes; the chief of which are thoſe of Ghent, Bruſſels, and Oſtend.

4. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What number of people are thoſe provinces ſuppoſed to contain?

M. Authors are not agreed on this head, but thoſe who take the medium, fix them at a million and a half.

S. By what appellation are the inhabitants called?

M. By that of Flemings.

S. What ſort of people are they?

M. Ignorant, blunt, and honeſt; extremely indelicate in their manners, and exceſſively fond of religious ceremonies.

5. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. In what articles does their commerce chiefly conſiſt?

M. In thoſe of their own manufactures; among the foremoſt of which are their beautiful laces, and cambrick, ſo called from Cambray, the chief place of that manufacture.

6. *Religion, Learning, and learned Men.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of theſe Netherlands?

M. Chiefly Roman Catholic; but all religions are profeſſed there without moleſtation to the profeſſors.

S. Does learning flouriſh in theſe provinces?

M. It is now on the decline. Strada, an elegant hiſtorian and poet, was a native of Flanders. The works of their eminent men conſiſt, in general, of theology; the civil and canon law; and Latin poems and plays.

7. *Univerſities.*

S. Are there any univerſities in theſe provinces?

M. Three, viz. Douay, Louvain, and St. Omer.

8. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What account do hiſtorians give us of the Netherlands?

M. That

M. That part of Germany which lies weſt of the Rhine and the ſeventeen provinces, were, by the Romans, called Belgicæ Galliæ. After the deſtruction of the Roman Empire, theſe provinces were conquered by the Goths, and other northern people, who divided them into a number of petty governments. In this ſtate they remained till they were ſeized by the houſe of Burgundy, whoſe heir was the emperor Charles V. by which means they became ſubject to the empire; but their yoke growing inſupportable, the inhabitants, with the prince of Orange, and the counts Hoorn and Egmont at their head, made a general inſurrection. Hoorn and Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince, whom the people had elected ſtadtholder, retiring into Holland, entered into a treaty with the adjacent provinces for their mutual defence. This being done, they took ſuch meaſures, and exerted themſelves with ſuch ſucceſs, that, by the aſſiſtance of queen Elizabeth, of England, they obliged the crown of Spain, about the year 1609, to declare them a free people; and ſome time after they were acknowledged as an independent ſtate by all Europe, under the title of The ſeven United Provinces, viz. Holland, Zealand, Frieſland, Groningen, Overyſſel, Guelderland and Zutphen, and Utrecht. The other ten, generally ſtiled the Low Countries, continued in the poſſeſſion of Spain till the year 1706, when, after the battle of Ramilies, great part of theſe provinces acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, for their ſovereign; and they remained ſubject to Auſtria till 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; but by the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the Engliſh, a great part of them were regained, and confirmed to Auſtria, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. Under this government they remained till the year 1789, when the late emperor Joſeph II. having projected many innovations and enforcing them with violence, a univerſal ſpirit of revolt broke out, an army of 40,000 men was ſuddenly raiſed to ſupport the renunciation of all allegiance, which ſeveral of the provinces openly made, a congreſs was formed from the different ſtates, in which the ſupreme government was veſted; and by the end of 1790, the Auſtrians were expelled. The new government, however, was not of long duration, for

Leopold II. (the ſucceſſor of Joſeph, who died in 1790,) was enabled, partly by force, partly by conciliatory meaſures, and partly by the mediation of Great-Britain, Pruſſia, and Holland, to recover the entire poſſeſſion of his authority; the mediating courts having guaranteed the reſtoration of the ancient Belgic conſtitution. In 1792, the French overran the Auſtrian Netherlands: they were driven out of them in 1793. but returned in 1794, and ſubdued every part of the country, which was afterwards formally ceded to them by the treaty of Campo Formio ſigned in October 1797.

DIALOUGE XIV.

Germany.

S. IS not Germany a very large country?

M. It is; being extended from the 45th to the 55th deg. of north latitude, and from the 5th to the 19th deg. of eaſt longitude.

S. What are the dimenſions of Germany?

M. It is about 600 miles in length, 500 in breadth, and contains an area of nearly 200,000 ſquare miles.

S. What are the boundaries of Germany?

M. It is bounded on the north by the German Ocean, the kingdom of Denmark, and the Baltick-Sea: on the ſouth by Switzerland and the Alps; on the eaſt by Poland, Hungary and Bohemia; and on the weſt by the Rhine, the Moſelle, and the Maeſe.

S. How is Germany divided?

M. Different geographers have followed different methods; but I ſhall follow that laid down by the emperor Maximilian, who divided it into ten great circles, nine of which now conſtitute the German empire; the circle of Burgundy, conſiſting of the ſeventeen Low Counties, being now detached from it. Theſe nine circles are the following:

The northern circles,	Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Weſtphalia.
The middle circles,	Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, Franconia.

The

The ſouthern circles, { Auſtria, Bavaria, Swabia.

1. *Circle of Upper Saxony.*

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Pomerania in the North,	Pruſſian Pomerania,	Stetin.
	Swediſh Pomerania,	Stralſund.
Brandenburgh in the middle, ſubject to its own elector, the king of Pruſſia,	Altmark,	Stendel.
	Middlemark,	Berlin, Potſdam.
	Newark,	Francfort, Cuſtrin.
Saxony Proper, in the ſouth, ſubject to its own elector,	Duchy of Saxony,	Wittenburg.
	Luſatia, marq.	Bantzen, Gorlits.
	Miſinia, marq.	Dreſden, Miſſein.
The landgravate of Thuringia, ſubject to the elector of Mentz,		Erfurt.
Duchies ſubject to their own dukes,	Saxe Meiningen,	Meiningen.
	Saxe Zeits,	Zeits.
	Saxe Altenburgh,	Altenburg.
	Saxe Weimer,	Weimer.
	Saxe Gotha,	Gotha.
	Saxe Eiſnach,	Eiſnach.
	Saxe Saalfield,	Saalfield.
Counties ſubject to their own counts,	Schwartſburg,	Schwartſburg.
	Belchingen,	Belchingen.
	Mansfield,	Mansfield.
Duchy, ſubject to Pruſſia, in the middle,	Hall,	Hall.
Duchy, ſubject to its own duke,	Saxe Naumberg,	Naumberg.
The counties of	Stolberg,	Stolberg.
	Hohenſtein,	Northauſen.

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Principality of	Anhalt,	Dessau Zerbst. Bernberg, Kothen.
Bishopric of	Saxe Hall,	Hall.
Subject to the elector of Saxony,	Voigtland,	Plowen.
Duchy, subject to the elector of Saxony, in the middle,	Merseberg,	Merseberg.

2. *Circle of Lower Saxony.*

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Holstein, partly subject to Denmark, and partly to the duke of Holstein Gottorp,	Holstein Proper,	Keil, subj. to Holstein Gottorp.
	Ditmarsh,	Meldorp, sub. to Denmark.
	Stormaria,	Glucstat, sub. to Denmark.
	Hamburg,	Hamburg, an imperial city.
	Wagerland,	Lubec, an imperial city.
Duchy, subject to Hanover,	Lawenburg,	Lawenburg.
Duchies and counties, subject to the duke of Brunswick, Wolfenbuttle,	Brunswic Proper,	Brunswic.
	Wolfenbuttle,	Wolfenbuttle,
	Rheinstein,	Rheinstein,
	Blachenberg.	Blachenburg.
Duchies subject to the elector of Hanover,	Calenburgh.	Hanover.
	Grubbenhagen,	Grubbenhagen.
	Gottingen,	Gottingen.
Duchy of Lunenburg, subject to Hanover,	Lunenburg Proper,	Lunenburg.
	Zell,	Zell.
Duchy, subject to Hanover,	Bremen,	Bremen, an imperial city.
	Verden,	Verden.

Divisions.

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Duchies, ſubj. to Mecklenburg,	Swerin, Guſtrow,	Swerin. Guſtrow.
Biſhopric, ſub. to its biſhop,	Hildeſheim,	Hildeſheim, an imperial city.
Duchy, ſub. to the King of Pruſſia,	Magdeburg,	Magdeburg.
Duchy, ſubject to Pruſſia,	Halberſtat,	Halberſtat.

3. *Circle of Weſtphalia.*

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*		*Chief Towns.*
North diviſion.	Embden, C. ſubject to Pruſſia.		Embden, imperial city.
	Oldenburg, C.	ſub. to Denmark.	Oldenburg.
	Delmonhurſt,		Delmonhurſt.
	Hoye,	ſubject to Hanover.	Hoye.
	Diepholt,		Diepholt.
Weſtern diviſion.	Munſter, B. ſub. to its own biſh.		Munſter.
	Paderborn, B. ſub. to its own biſh.		Paderborn.
	Oſnaburg, B. ſub. to its own biſh.		Oſnaburg.
	Lippe, C. ſub. to its own count.		Lippe, Pyrmont.
	Minden, D.	ſub. to Pruſſia.	Minden.
	Ravenſburg, C.		Ravenſburg.
	Weſtphalia, ſub. to the elector of Cologn.		Arenſburg.
	Tecklenburg, C.	ſubject to their reſpective counts.	Tecklenſburg.
	Ritberg. C.		Ritberg.
	Schawenburg, C.		Schawenburg.

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Middle division.	Cleves, D. sub. to Prussia.	Cleef.
	Mark, C. sub. to Prussia.	Ham.
	Berg, D. sub. to the elect.	Dusseldorf.
	Juliers, D. sub. to the Palatine.	Juliers, Aix.
	Liege,	Liege, Huy.
	Bentheim, C. sub. to Hanover.	Bentheim.
	Steinfort, C. sub. to its own count.	Steinfort.

4. *Circle of the Upper Rhine.*

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Hesse,	Hesse Cassel, subject to their respective Landgraves.	Cassel.
	Hesse Marpurg,	Marpurg.
	Hesse Darmstadt,	Darmstadt.
	Hesse Hoberg,	Homberg.
	Hesse Rhinefield,	Rhinefield.
	Hesse Wanfried,	Wanfield.

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Counties in the Wetteraw.	Nassau Dillenburgh, sub. to the house of Nassau.	Dillenburg.
	Nassau Diets,	Diets.
	Nassau Hadamar.	Hadamar.
	Nassau Kerberg,	Kerberg.
	Nassau Siegen,	Siegen.
	Nassau Idstein,	Idstein.
	Nassau Weilburg,	Wielburg.
	Nassau Wisbaden,	Wisbaden.
	Nassau Bielsteid,	Bielstein,
	Nassau Otweiler.	Otweiler.
	Nassau Usingen.	Usingen.
Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state.		Frankfort on the Main, an imperial city.
County of Erpach, subject to its own count.		Erpach.
Bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state.		Spire on the Rhine, an imperial city.
Duchy of Zweybrucken, or Deux ponts, subject to the duke of Deux-ponts.		Deux-ponts.

Divisions.

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Principal Towns.*
County of Catzenelbogen, subject to Hesse Cassel.	Catzenelbogen.	
Counties of: Waldec,	Waldec.	
Solms.	Solms.	
Hanau,	Hanau.	
Eysenberg,	Eysenberg,	
Soyn,	Soyn.	
Wied,	Wied.	
Witgenstein.	Witgenstein.	
Haizefield,	Haizefield.	
Westerberg.	Westerberg.	
Abby of Fuld, sub. to its abbot.	Fuld.	
Hirchfield, sub. to Hesse Cassel,	Hirchfield.	

5. *Circle of the Lower Rhine.*

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Principal Towns.*
Palatinate of the Rhine, sub. to the elector palatine,		Heidelburg, Philipsburg, Manheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine.

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Principal Towns.*
Archbishoprics and Electorates of: Cologn,	sub to their respective electors.	Cologn on the Rhine.
		Bonn on the Rhine.
Mentz,		Mentz on the Rhine.
		Aschaffenburg on the Maine.
Triers,		Triers on the Moselle.
Bishopric of Worms,	a sovereign state.	Worms on the Rhine, an imperial city.
Duchy of Simmeren.	subject to its own duke	Simmeren.
Counties of: Rhinegravestein,		Rhinegravestein.
Meurs, sub. to Prussia,		Meurs.
Veldentz, sub to the Elector Palatine,		Veldentz.
Spanheim,		Creutznach.
Leymingen,		Leymingen.

6. *Circle of Franconia.*

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Principal Towns.*
Bishoprics of Wurtsburg, Bemberg, Aichstat,	sub. to their respective bishops.	Wurtsburg. Bemberg. Aichstat.
Marquisates of Cullenback, Onspach,	sub. to their respective counts.	Cullenback. Onspach.
Principality of Henneburg.		Henneburg.
Duchy of Colberg, Duchy of Hildburghausen,	sub. to their respective dukes.	Colberg. Hildburghausen.
Burgraviate of Nuremburg.	an independent state.	Nuremburg, an imperial city.
Territory of Margentheim,	subject to the grand master Teut. order,	Margentheim,
Counties of Reinbeck,		Reinbeck.
Barith, subject to its own Margrave,		Barith.
Papenheim, sub. to its own count,		Papenheim.
Wartheim,		Wartheim.
Cassel, middle,		Cassel.
Schwartzenburg, sub. to its own count,		Schwartzenburg, middle.
Holach,		Holach.

7. *Circle of Austria.*

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Principal Towns.*
Archduchy of Austria proper,		Vienna, Lints, Ens.
Duchies of Stiria and Cilley,		Gratz, Cilley.
Carinthia,		Clagenfurt, Lavemund.
Carniola,		Laubach, Zerknits.
Goritia,		Trieste, A. Veits. Gorits.

Divisions.

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Principal Towns.*
County of Tyrol,		Inspruch.
Bishop-rics of Brixen,		Brixen.
Bishop-rics of Trent,		Trent.

N. B. This whole circle belongs to the emperor and king of Hungary.

8. *Circle of Bavaria.*

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Principal Towns.*
Palatinate of Bavaria, Duchy of Bavaria,	subject to the elector of Bavaria.	Mimich, Landshut, Ingoldstadt. Donawert, Ratisbon, imperial city. Amberg.
Bishop-rics of Trissengen,	subject to their own bishops.	Trissengen.
Bishop-rics of Passau,	subject to their own bishops.	Passau.
Duchy of Neuberg.	subject to the elector palatine.	Neuberg.
Bishopric of Saltsburg,	subject to its own bishop.	Saltsburg.

9. *Circle of Swabia.*

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Principal Towns.*
Duchy of Wurtemburg,	sub. to the duke of Wurtemburg,	Stutgard. Tubingen, Heilbron.
Baden, Baden, Baden Dourlach,	sub. to their marg.	Baden Weiler. Baden Dourlach.
Bishopric of Augsburg,	subject to its own bishop.	Augsburg, imperial, Hockstet. Blenheim.
Territory of Ulm,	a sovereign state.	Ulm on the Danube, imperial.
Bishopric of Constance,	subject to its own bishop,	Constance,
Principalities of Mindelheim, Turstemburg, Hohenzollern,	subject to their respective princes,	Mindelheim, Turstemburg, Hohenzollern,

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Principal Towns.*
Counties of	Oeting,	Oeting.
	Koningſeck,	Koningſeck.
	Hohenrichburg,	Gemund.
Baronies of	Waldburg,	Waldburg.
	Limpurg.	Limpurg.
Abbies of	Kempton,	Kempton on the Iller.
	Buchaw,	Buchaw,
	Lindaw,	Lindau, imperial cities.
Imperial cities, or ſovereign ſtates,		Nordlingen.
		Meninghen.
		Rotwell, &c.
Subject to the houſe of Auſtria,	Black foreſt,	Rheinfield, and Lauffenburg.
	Rheinfield,	
	Marquiſate of Burgaw.	Burgaw.
	Territory of the Briſgau on the Rhine.	Fiburgh, and Briſac.

1. *Climate and Soil.*

S. What is the climate of Germany?

M. It is different in different parts of the empire, both with regard to ſituation, and the improvement of the ſoil. In the northern parts the winters are much colder than in England; in the ſouthern it is very temperate; but the weather is more ſettled in the middle parts than in either of the extremities.

S. Is agriculture properly attended to in Germany?

M. Not ſo much as it ought to be, though much more ſo at preſent than it was formerly. There are however ſtill very large tracts of land lying waſte and uncultivated, and conſequently there is ſufficient room for improvement.

2. *Mountains, Rivers and Lakes.*

S. Are there any remarkable mountains in Germany?

M. A great number; but the principal are the different chains of the Alps, which ſeparate it from Italy; and thoſe which run along the frontiers of Bohemia.

S. What

S. What are the principal rivers in Germany?

M. The Tanais, or Don, eſteemed one of the fineſt in the world. The Danube, famous for its cataracts and whirlpools; the diſtance between its ſource and its mouth is near 1630 miles. Beſides theſe two remarkable rivers, are the Rhine, the Elbe, the Oder, the Weſer, and the Moſelle.

S. What are the principal lakes of Germany?

M. Thoſe of Conſtance, Bregentz, and Bavaria, and the Zecknitzer-ſee, in the duchy of Carniola.

3. *Foreſts and Mines.*

S. Are there many foreſts in Germany?

M. More than in any other country in Europe, except the uninhabited foreſts of the north.

S. Can any reaſon be given for this?

M. The great paſſion for hunting, which in Germany is one of the principal diverſions of princes and great men. Nor is there hardly a count, baron, or gentleman, but has a chaſe or park filled with game.

S. What are the names of the principal foreſts in this country?

M. The Hercynian and black foreſts; the former was aſtoniſhingly large in Cæſar's time, being near nine days journey in length and ſix in breadth; but conſiderable parts of the woods have ſince been cut down, though it is ſtill very large. The ſame may be ſaid of the black foreſt.

S. Is Germany remarkable for its mines?

M. It is. Mines of ſilver, copper, lead, iron, quick-ſilver, ſalt, ſulphur, nitre and vitriol are found in many parts of Germany, eſpecially in the circle of Auſtria. There are alſo found in the mines of this country, amethyſts, jaſper, ſaphire, agate, turquois ſtones, and the fineſt rubies in the world. There are alſo quarries of marble, ſlate, chalk, oker, allum, and amber.

4. *Baths and Mineral Waters.*

S. What are the principal baths in Germany?

M. Thoſe of Aix-la-Chapelle, Spa, Pyrmont, Embs, Wiſbaden, Schwallbach, Wildungen, Carlſbad, and Baden.

S. Which

S. Which of all theſe are reckoned the beſt?

M. It is impoſſible to ſay; they have all their partizans, and are adapted to different diſeaſes. They are all greatly frequented; but perhaps much more for the ſake of the amuſements, than for the ſalutary effects of the waters.

5. *Vegetable Productions.*

S. Is Germany remarkable for its fertility?

M. The cultivated parts are; for though theſe form only a ſmall part of the country, yet proviſions are cheaper, and in greater plenty, than in moſt other countries in Europe. The vines cultivated on the banks of the Rhine, and the Moſelle, produce wines different from thoſe of any other country, and are greatly valued in many parts of the world.

6. *Animals.*

S. Are there any animals peculiar to Germany?

M. The glutton is an inhabitant of that country, and ſuppoſed to be the moſt voracious of all animals. The fleſh of the German wild boar is exceedingly fine, particularly the legs, when made into hams. Their oxen and ſheep are not ſo good as thoſe of England, but they have a breed of excellent heavy horſes.

7. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What number of inhabitants does Germany contain?

M. It is impoſſible to ſay exactly; but they have been computed at twenty millions.

S. What ſort of people are the Germans?

M. In their perſons they are tall, fair, and well made: in their manners, induſtrious, frank, honeſt, hoſpitable, free from avarice and diſguiſe. The nobility are ridiculouſly fond of anceſtry and titles, and if a nobleman has ten ſons they equally inherit the latter.

S. What are their principal diverſions?

M. Cards, dice, hunting, dancing, fencing, bull and bear baiting; and great part of their time is paſſed in eating and drinking, of which they are extremely fond. In winter,

winter, when the Danube is frozen, the ladies are drawn in ſledges, of different ſhapes, upon the ice, being dreſſed for that purpoſe in a very elegant manner.

8. *Religion, Language, Learning, and learned Men.*

S. What religion do the Germans profeſs?

M. There are ſects of all kinds in this extenſive country; but the two principal are the proteſtant and catholic.

S. What is their language?

M. High Dutch; but it varies ſo much in the dialect, that the people of one province ſcarcely underſtand thoſe of another.

S. Is Germany famous for learning or learned men?

M. Yes; for both.

S. What are the names of the latter?

M. Stahl, Van Sweiten, Storkh, Hoffman, Ruvinus, Dillenius, Heiſter, Newman, Pott, Margraff, Leibnitz, Wolf, Puffendorff, Thomaſius. Otto Van Gueriche, Kepler, Buſhing, Moſheim, Haller, Winckelman, and Brucker.

9. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. In what does their commerce chiefly conſiſt?

M. In corn, tobacco, horſes, lean cattle, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, wines, linen and woollen yarn, ribbons, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, toys, turnery wares in wood, metals, and ivory; goat-ſkins, wool, timber, cannon, bullets, bombs and bomb-ſhells, iron plates and ſtoves, tinned plates, ſteel work, copper, braſs wire, porcelain, earthen ware, glaſſes, mirrors, hog's briſtles, mum, beer, tartar, ſmalt, zaffer, Pruſſian blue, printer's ink, and various other articles.

S. What manufactures do they carry on?

M. Paper, tobacco, porcelain, wax, hard-ware, toys, velvets, ſilks, ſtuffs of all kinds, linen, thread, and every thing neceſſary for wear.

10. *Univerſities.*

S. How many univerſities are there in Germany?

M. Thirty-ſix; of which ſeventeen are Proteſtant, ſeventeen

venteen Roman Catholic, and two which admit ſtudents of either ſect. Beſides theſe, there are a great number of colleges, gymnaſia, pedagogies, Latin ſchools, and many academies and ſocieties for promoting the ſtudy of philoſophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, &c.

11. *Conſtitution, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution and government of Germany?

M. Of three hundred princes which belong to the empire, there are few but what are abſolute in the government of their own territories. The whole of them, however, form a grand confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor.

S. What do the revenues of Germany amount to annually?

M. It is impoſſible to aſcertain thoſe of all the independent princes: but that of the emperor is ſuppoſed to amount to between five and ſix thouſand pounds yearly, ariſing from ſome inconſiderable fiefs in the Black-Foreſt.

12. *Curioſities and Antiquities.*

S. Are there any curioſities or antiquities in Germany?

M. Every court has a cabinet of curioſities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern. The Gothic palaces, cathedrals, caſtles, and town-houſes in Germany, are very curious; and the vaſt caves and rocks found in that country, form the moſt conſiderable part of their natural curioſities.

13. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What particulars do we learn from hiſtory of the empire of Germany?

M. Till the ninth century it was divided into a number of principalities independent of each other; but at that period Charlemagne conquered the whole empire, which remained ſubject to his poſterity till the year 880, when the different princes revolted, and aſſuming their ancient independence, placed Arnulph, king of Bavaria, on the throne;

throne; ſince which time Germany has been conſidered as an elective empire. The houſes of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia, by turns acquired the imperial power till 1440, when Frederic III. duke of Auſtria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. Maximilian, ſucceſſor to Frederic III. having married the heireſs of Charles, duke of Burgundy, annexed Burgundy, and the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, to the houſe of Auſtria. In 1519, the reformation in religion began in Germany, which in the reign of Ferdinand III. and in the year 1648, was confirmed by the treaty of Weſtphalia.

Ferdinand III. did not long enjoy the imperial dignity; for he died in 1657, and was ſucceeded by Leopold, a ſevere and unamiable prince. He was diſtreſſed by the French on one ſide, and by the Turks on the other: the latter laid ſiege to Vienna, and would probably have taken it, had not the celebrated general John Sobieſki, king of Poland, raiſed the ſiege. During this war with the Turks, prince Eugene gave the firſt ſpecimens of his valour and conduct, by twice defeating the armies of the Porte. About the ſame time the prince of Orange, afterwards William III. of England, laid the foundation of the confederacy againſt the power of France, which afterwards became ſo dreadful to Lewis XIV. in the reign of queen Anne.

Leopold died in 1705, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, a ſluggiſh and ſelfiſh prince, and ſuſpected of a deſign of ſubverting the liberties of Germany. He died in 1711, and leaving no male iſſue, the imperial crown deſcended to his brother Charles VI. whom the allies were then endeavouring to place on the Spaniſh throne, in oppoſition to Philip, duke of Anjou, the grandſon of Lewis XIV.

Charles exerted himſelf in the war then carrying on againſt France; but the treaty of Utrecht, which was ſigned in 1713, put an end to the hoſtilities in the Netherlands; and prince Eugene ſoon after totally defeated the Turks at Peterwaradin. Another total defeat which that general gave them at Belgrade, induced the infidels to ſue for peace, which was accordingly ſigned at Paſſarowitz. In the mean time the crown of Great Britain devolved on the

the houſe of Hanover; and Charles, relying on the ſupport of ſo powerful an ally, made himſelf reſpected in every part of the empire.

But this did not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles; he declared war againſt the Turks, flattering himſelf he ſhould be able to wreſt from them ſome of their European dominions. His pleaſing expectations however deceived him: prince Eugene was now dead, and he had no general to ſupply his place. He ſoon experienced a reverſe of fortune; but by the interpoſition of England and France, he obtained a much better peace than he had reaſon to expect.

In the year 1740, Charles paid the debt of nature, and leaving no male iſſue, his daughter, Maria Thereſa, ſucceeded to all his hereditary dominions, purſuant to the articles of the pragmatic ſanction. But ſhe would ſoon have been ſtripped of all her territories, had it not been for the firmneſs of George II. and the unanimous declaration of the Hungarians, to ſupport her intereſt. The elector of Bavaria, by the name of Charles VII. was placed on the imperial throne, and ſupported by France, Spain, and the king of Pruſſia. Charles VII. died in 1745, and the duke of Lorrain, then grand duke of Tuſcany, who was married to Maria Thereſa, queen of Hungary, was elected emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries till the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, when Sileſia was guaranteed to the king of Pruſſia, and that prince acknowledged the grand duke of Tuſcany emperor.

The empreſs queen ſoon forgot the favours ſhe had received from England, and joined with France, Ruſſia, and Poland, to deſtroy the king of Pruſſia, and annihilate the power of the king of Great Britain in Germany: but the firmneſs and perſeverance of the Britiſh miniſtry, and the unequalled valour and conduct of his Pruſſian majeſty, rendered the ſcheme abortive; and the rapid conqueſts of England, added to the death of the empreſs of Ruſſia, obliged France and Spain to ſue for peace. The ungrateful empreſs, abandoned by her allies, was glad to put an end to a war, which now threatened to deſtroy the houſe of Auſtria.

The emperor, her huſband, died in 1765, and her ſon Joſeph, who had been crowned king of the Romans, in

1764,

1764, ſucceeded him in the empire. Soon after his acceſſion he diſcovered great activity and ambition. He joined in the diſmemberment of Poland with Ruſſia and Pruſſia, and made ſuch innovations in the conſtitutions and laws of the Netherlands, that, as has been before mentioned, they broke out into open inſurrection, and entirely threw off their allegiance. He died in February 1790, and was ſucceeded, as king of Hungary and Bohemia, by his brother Peter-Leopold, who was crowned king of the Romans on the 30th of September following, and died on the 1ſt of March 1792, not without ſuſpicion of poiſon. His ſucceſſor was Francis II. the preſent emperor, who was elected emperor of Germany, July 14, 1792. The principal events of his reign are thoſe of the preſent war, of which a ſummary has been given in the account of the affairs of France.

DIALOGUE XV.

Bohemia.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Bohemia?

M. It lies between the parallels of 48 and 52 deg. of north latitude, and between 12 and 19 deg. of eaſt longitude.

S. What are its boundaries?

M. On the north it is bounded by Saxony and Brandenburg; on the eaſt by Poland and Hungary; on the ſouth by Auſtria and Bavaria; and on the weſt by the palatinate of Bavaria.

S. What are the dimenſions of this kingdom?

M. It is about 300 miles in length, and about 250 in breadth, comprehending, in theſe dimenſions, Bohemia Proper, Sileſia, and Moravia.

S. What are its principal diviſions?

M. I have already mentioned the provinces of which it is compoſed, their chief towns, &c. are enumerated in the following table.

Diviſions.	*Chief Towns.*
Bohemia Proper, moſtly ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria,	Prague. Koningſgratz, Glatz, ſubj. to the king of Pruſſia, Egra.
Sileſia, moſtly ſubject to the king of Pruſſia,	Breſlau, Glogau, Croſſen, Jagendorff, Tropau, ſubj. to the houſe of Auſtria, Teſchen, ſubj. to the houſe of Auſtria.
Moravia, entirely ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria,	Olmutz, Brin, Igla.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Bohemia ſalutary?

M. It is eſteemed much inferior to that of other parts of Germany; but its ſoil and produce are the ſame.

2. *Mountains and Mines.*

S. What mountains are there in Bohemia?

M. It is in a manner ſurrounded by them, but there are none of any note.

S. Have any mines been diſcovered there?

M. Yes; very rich ones of ſilver, quick-ſilver, copper, iron, lead, ſulphur, and ſaltpetre.

3. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. What trade and manufactures do the Bohemians carry on?

M. The ſame as the Germans in general.

4. *Inhabitants and Manners.*

S. What are the number of inhabitants?

M. Some years ſince they were ſuppoſed to amount to near three millions, but at preſent they fall far ſhort of that number.

S. What ſort of people are they?

M. In their perſons and manners they perfectly reſemble the Germans. There is no middle ſtate among them, every lord being a ſovereign, and every tenant a ſlave. The lower claſs are very ſuperſtitious, and much addicted to pilfering.

5. *Religion, Language, and Univerſities.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of Bohemia?

M. The Roman catholic; but many of the Moravians profeſs a wild ſort of proteſtantiſm.

S. What language do they ſpeak?

M. The Bohemian tongue is properly a dialect of the Sclavonian: but they generally talk High Dutch.

S. Are there any univerſities in this kingdom?

M. Only that of Prague.

6. *Conſtitution, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution and government of Bohemia?

M. The forms of the old conſtitution ſtill ſubſiſt, but this is mere parade, for the government, under the houſe of Auſtria, is deſpotic.

S. What do the revenues amount to annually?

M. About five hundred thouſand pounds.

7. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What are the principal hiſtorical events of Bohemia?

M. Till the emperors of Germany uſurped the throne of that kingdom, they uſually elected their own kings. Jerome of Prague, and John Huſs, two of the firſt reformers, were, in the year 1414, burnt at the council of Conſtance, which

which occaſioned an inſurrection, and forty thouſand Bohemians being aſſembled under the command of the famous Ziſca, they defeated the emperor's forces, and entirely drove the imperialiſts out of the kingdom. The emperor, however, ſtill kept poſſeſſion of it, though an attempt was made to throw off his yoke, by electing a proteſtant king; but this ſcheme proving abortive, Bohemia has ever ſince that period remained ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

DIALOGUE XVI.

Hungary.

S. WHAT are the ſituation, boundaries, and dimenſions of Hungary?

M. It lies between 45 and 49 deg. of north latitude, and between 17 and 23 deg. of eaſt longitude. It is bounded on the north by Poland; on the eaſt by Tranſylvania and Walachia; on the ſouth by Sclavonia; and on the weſt by Auſtria and Moravia. It is about 300 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. Its principal diviſions are the following:

Diviſions.	*Chief Towns.*
Upper, or Proper Hungary,	Preſburg.
Lower Hungary,	Buda.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. What is the air of Hungary?

M. Very unſalutary in the ſouthern parts, owing to its numerous marſhes, lakes, and ſtagnated waters; but the northern parts being mountainous, the air is more wholeſome.

S. Is the ſoil fertile?

M. No country in the world can boaſt a richer, particularly that of the plain, which extends from Preſburg to Belgrade, three hundred miles in length.

2. *Vegetable*

2. *Vegetable and Animal Productions.*

S. What vegetables does their ſoil produce?

M. Corn in prodigious quantities; graſs; all ſorts of eſculent plants; hops, millet, buckwheat, ſaffron, tobacco, peaches, melons, mulberries, cheſnuts, and grapes; from the laſt they make moſt delicious wines.

S. What peculiar animals are there in Hungary?

M. It is remarkable for a fine breed of horſes, uſually mouſe-coloured; and in the neighbourhood of Preſburgh there is a particular large breed of rams.

3. *Mineral Waters, Lakes, and Rivers.*

S. Are there any baths or mineral waters in that kingdom?

M. Yes; ſeveral of both, and eſteemed the moſt ſalutary of any in Europe.

S. Does it contain any lakes?

M. A great number, particularly four of conſiderable extent, ſituated among the Carpathian mountains, and abounding in fiſh.

S. What are the names of their principal rivers?

M. The Danube, the Drave, the Teyſſe, the Meriſh, and the Temes.

4. *Mountains and Mines.*

S. Are there any mountains in Hungary?

M. There are ſeveral found all over the country, but the principal are the Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland.

S. What mines have there been diſcovered in this kingdom?

M. Thoſe of gold, ſilver, copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quickſilver, cryſocolla, and terra ſigillata.

5. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. What are their principal articles of commerce?

M. Wines, metals, drugs, and ſalts.

S. Have

S. Have they any particular manufactures?

M. No; they are much the ſame as in Germany.

6. *Antiquities and Curioſities.*

S. What antiquities does Hungary boaſt?

M. Vaſt numbers of Greek and Roman metals have been diſcovered there; and about twenty miles diſtant from Belgrade is the remains of a bridge, built by the Romans, which for magnificence might vie with any in the world.

S. Are there any artificial curioſities?

M The baths and mines I have already mentioned, form a conſiderable part of theſe. Their bridges are alſo eſteemed ſuch; for at Eſſek there is one, or more properly ſpeaking, a continuation of bridges, thrown over the Danube and Drave, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain diſtances; and between Buda and Peſt, there is a bridge over the Danube half a mile long, formed entirely of boats

S. What natural curioſities are there in that kingdom?

M. Several; among which are moſt prodigious rocks; but that which deſerves particular notice, is a cavern, ſituated in a mountain near Szelitze, the mouth of which is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad; its ſubterraneous paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock: the extent of them has never yet been aſcertained; but as far as it is poſſible to go, the height is fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-ſix.

7. *Inhabitants and Manners.*

S. What number of Inhabitants does Hungary contain?

M. About three millions and a half.

S. What ſort of people are they?

M. They are well made, have a noble air, and the ladies are eſteemed handſome. They boaſt of being deſcended from thoſe heroes who formed the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. In general they are extremely indolent, leaving trade and manufactures to the care of the Greeks, and other ſtrangers ſettled among them; but they are very brave and magnanimous.

8. *Religion,*

8. *Religion, Language, and Univerſities.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of Hungary?

M. The Roman catholic; but the chief part of the inhabitants are either proteſtants or Greeks.

S. What language do they ſpeak?

M. They have a variety of dialects; but Latin is generally ſpoke among the higher, and middle ranks of people.

S. Are there any univerſities in that kingdom?

M. There are four, improperly ſo called, viz. Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Caſcham.

9. *Conſtitution and Government.*

S. What is the conſtitution and government of Hungary?

M. There is a diet, or parliament, a Hungary office, which is fixed at Vienna; and a ſtadtholder's council at Preſburg. Every royal town has its ſenate: there is alſo an exchequer, nine chambers, and other ſubordinate courts.

Hiſtorical Events.

S. What information does hiſtory give us relative to Hungary?

M. At the time the Huns ſubdued this country, to which they gave their name, it was part of the ancient Pannonia. Till the year 1000, Hungary was an aſſemblage of different ſtates, when Stephen aſſumed the title of king. This nation was at perpetual war with the infidels for many centuries, and in 1526, Lewis, king of Hungary, was killed, fighting againſt Solyman, emperor of the Turks; upon which the archduke Ferdinand, who had eſpouſed the ſiſter of Lewis, claimed the crown of Hungary, and with ſome difficulty obtained it. Since which period that kingdom has belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, and its hiſtory is entirely connected with that of Germany.

DIALOGUE XVII.

Pruſſia.

S. WHAT are the boundaries and dimenſions of Pruſſia?

M. It is bounded by Samogitia on the north; by Poland Proper and Maſovia on the ſouth; by part of Lithuania on the eaſt; and by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic on the weſt. It is about 160 miles in length, and 100 in breadth.

S. Is this ſmall country the whole of his Pruſſian majeſty's dominions?

M. It is not; his dominions lie ſcattered in different parts of Germany, Poland, Switzerland. &c. I have collected the whole, with their ſituations, areas, and principal places, in the following table:

Territories.	*Countries Names.*	*Sq. Miles.*	*Chief Cities.*
Poland,	Pruſſia, - - -	9,950	Koningſburg.
Upper Saxony,	Brandenburg, -	10,910	Berlin.
	Pomerania, - -	4,820	Camin.
	Swed. Pomerania,	2,291	Stetin.
Lower Saxony,	Magdeburg, - -	1,535	Magdeburg.
	Halberſtat, - -	450	Halberſtat.
Sileſia,	Croſſen, - - -	550	Croſſen.
Weſtphalia,	Minden, - - -	595	Minden.
	Ravenſburg, - -	525	Ravenſburg.
	Lingen, - - -	120	Lingen,
	Cleves, - - -	680	Cleves.
	Meurs, - - -	35	Meurs.
	Mark, - - -	980	Ham.
Netherlands,	Gueldres. - - -	360	Gueldres.
Switz rland,	Neuſchatel, - -	320	Neuſchatel.
	Total	34,771	

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Pruſſia eſteemed?

M. Upon the whole it is thought very ſalutary.

S. Is the ſoil good?

M. Yes;

M. Yes; it produces corn and vegetables very plentifully.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. Are there any animals peculiar to Pruſſia?

M. None; it has in common with other countries, horſes, ſheep, deer, and moſt kinds of game; wolves, foxes, bears, and wild boars.

S. Are there any vegetables?

M. I have already obſerved that every kind is produced in great plenty.

3. *Mines and Rivers.*

S. Are there any mines in Pruſſia?

M. Yes; among which are numbers of coal and amber-pits.

S. What are the names of their principal rivers?

M. The Elbe, the Viſtula, the Paſſarge, and the Memel, or Mammel.

4. *Inhabitants and Manners.*

S. What number of inhabitants does Pruſſia contain?

M. According to the computation of Dr. Buſching, ſix hundred thirty-five thouſand, nine hundred and ninety-eight.

S. Have they any peculiar cuſtoms?

M. None; in their perſons, cuſtoms, and diverſions, they differ very little from the other inhabitants of Germany.

5. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. Does Pruſſia trade with other nations?

M. Yes; ſhe annually exports large quantities of naval ſtores, tallow, amber, fiſh, caviar, hempſeed, linſeed, oatmeal, and mead.

S. What manufactures are there in that kingdom?

M. Cloth, camblets, linen, ſilk ſtockings, &c. glaſs, iron-work, gunpowder, paper, copper, and braſs.

6. *Conſtitution, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution of Pruſſia?

M. Abſolute monarchy.

S. What is its form of government?

M. By a regency of four chancellors of ſtate; ſeveral other councils, and thirty-ſeven bailiffs; beſides which there is a board for commerce and navigation.

S. What do the revenues amount to yearly?

M. The exact ſum is not aſcertained, but they are conjectured to be very conſiderable.

7. *Religion, Language, and Univerſities.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of Pruſſia?

M. Thoſe of Luther and Calvin, but chiefly the former.

S. What is the language of the inhabitants?

M. Principally High Dutch?

S. Are there any univerſities?

M. Only one at Koningſburg; but the country in general abounds in ſchools and academies.

8. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What account does hiſtory give us of Pruſſia?

M. That, till the time of the Cruſades, the ancient inhabitants were a brave people, who on every occaſion exerted and maintained their right to independence. About the year 1230, a war began between them and the German knights of the Teutonic order, which continued till the thirteenth century, when moſt of the natives being ſubdued theſe knights peopled Pruſſia with Germans, and conſented that the part now called Poliſh Pruſſia, ſhould continue a free province under the protection of Caſimir, king of Poland. The other part they were to keep poſſeſſion of, on condition that they acknowledged themſelves vaſſals of Poland. This ſovereignty of the knights continued for three hundred years, during which time the inhabitants made many fruitleſs attempts to throw off their vaſſalage. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the laſt grand maſter of the Teutonic order in Pruſſia, was acknowledged

knowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia, from thence called Ducal Pruſſia, but to hold it as a fief to Poland. In this ſtate it continued till 1657, when Ducal Pruſſia was confirmed to the elector, Frederic William, of Brandenburg, freed from its vaſſalage to Poland, and he and his deſcendants acknowledged independent and ſovereign lords of that part of the kingdom. After his deceaſe his ſon was raiſed to the title of king of Pruſſia, in an aſſembly of the ſtates of the empire, and ſoon after addreſſed as ſuch by all the powers of Europe. He was ſucceeded in 1713, by his ſon Frederic William, father of Frederic II. or Frederic the Great, who aſcended the throne in 1740, and dying in Auguſt 1786, was ſucceeded by his nephew Frederic William II who died of a dropſy November 16, 1797, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Frederic William III. the preſent king.

DIALOGUE XVIII.

Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia and Morlachia.

S. WHAT are the boundaries and dimenſions of theſe provinces?

M. Tranſylvania is bounded on the north by Upper Hungary and Poland; on the ſouth by Walachia; on the eaſt by Moldavia and Walachia: and on the weſt by Upper and Lower Hungary: it lies between 45 and 48 deg. of north latitude, and between 22 and 25 deg. of eaſt longitude. It is about 180 miles in length, and 120 in breadth.

Sclavonia is bounded on the north by the river Drave; on the ſouth by Stiria in Auſtria; on the eaſt by the Danube; and on the weſt by the Save. It lies between 45 and 47 deg. of north latitude, and between 16 and 22 deg. of eaſt longitude; being 200 miles in length and 60 in breadth.

Croatia lies between 44 and 47 deg. of north latitude, and between 15 and 17 deg. of eaſt longitude: it is bounded on the north by the river Save: on the ſouth by Morlachia; on the eaſt by Boſnia; and on the weſt by the duchy of Carniola; it is about 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth.

Morlachia lies between 44 and 46 deg. of north latitude, and between 16 and 17 deg. of eaſt longitude; it is about 100 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. On the north it is bounded by Carniola and Croatia; on the ſouth by Dalmatia; on the eaſt by Boſnia, and on the weſt by the gulph of Venice.

1. *Air, Soil, &c.*

S. Is the air of thoſe countries wholeſome?

M. It is eſteemed much more ſo than that of Hungary.

S. What is the ſoil?

M. Exceedingly fruitful, producing vaſt quantities of corn, wine, &c.

2. *Rivers, Manufactures, and Commerce.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers?

M. In Tranſylvania, the Alauta and the Meriſh; and in the other three, the Danube, the Drave, and the Save, are the chief.

S. What manufactures do the inhabitants carry on?

M. Principally thoſe of copper and iron utenſils.

S. Have they any foreign trade?

M. It is very inconſiderable; metals and ſalt are ſent from Tranſylvania into Hungary.

3. *Mountains, Mines, and Foreſts.*

S. Are there any particular mountains in theſe countries?

M. The principal are the Carpathian, and the Irongate.

S. What mines do they contain?

M. Thoſe of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, quickſilver, antimony, ſulphur, vitriol, rock-ſalt, ſalt petre, red-oker, and chalk.

S. Are there any conſiderable foreſts?

M. Several, particularly in Tranſylvania.

4. *Religion and Language.*

S. What religion do the inhabitants profeſs?

M. The

M. The eſtabliſhed worſhip is that of Rome, but there are a great number of proteſtants.

S. What language do they ſpeak?

M. The Sclavonian.

4. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. Does hiſtory mention any thing material concerning thoſe provinces?

M. Tranſylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, as Sclavonia, Croatia, and Morlachia are of the ancient Illyricum. They were all formerly ſubject to the Turks, who by treaty and force of arms, ceded them to the houſe of Auſtria, on which they have ever ſince been dependent provinces.

DIALOGUE XIX.

Poland, including Lithuania.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Poland?

M. It lies between 46 and 57 deg. of north latitude, and between 16 and 34 deg. of eaſt longitude.

S. What are its boundaries and dimenſions?

M. It is bounded on the north by Livonia and the Baltic ſea; on the ſouth by Turkey and Hungary; on the eaſt by Ruſſia, and on the weſt by Pomerania, Brandenburg, Sileſia, and Moravia. It is about 700 miles in length, and 680 in breadth.

S. What are the diviſions of this kingdom?

M. The principal diviſions of this country before its diſmemberment by Pruſſia, Ruſſia, and Auſtria, are exhibited in the following table.

Provinces.	*Palatinates.*		*Chief Towns.*
1. Great Poland.	Poſnania,		Poſna.
	Kaliſh,		Kaliſh, Gneſna.
	Brzeſc.	Compr.	Brzeſc.
	Wladiſlaw,	Cujavia,	Wladiſlaw.
	Dobrzin,		Dobrzin.
	Ploſko.		Ploſko.

Provinces.	*Palatinates.*	*Chief Towns.*
1. Great Poland.	Rava,	Rava.
	Lencicia,	Lencicia.
	Siradia,	Siradia.
	Inowlocz,	Inowlocz.
Little Poland.	Cracow,	Cracow.
	Sendomir,	Sendomir,
	Lublin,	Lublin.
Pruſſia royal, or Poliſh Pruſſia, moſt of it ſubject to Poland.		Dantzic, a free city, under the protection of Poland.
		Elbing.
		Marienburg.
		Culm.
		Thorn.
Samogitia.		Roſienne.
		Midnick.
Lithuania.	Wilna,	Wilna.
	Braſlaw,	Braſlaw.
	Poleſko,	Poleſko.
	Wipteſk,	Wipteſk.
	Troki,	Troki, Grodno.
	Minſki,	Minſki.
	Mſciſlaw,	Mſciſlaw.
	Novogrodeck.	Novogrodeck.
Warſovia, or Maſovia,	Czerſko,	Warſaw.
		Czerſko,
		Novigrod.
Polachia,	Bielſk,	Bielſk.
Poleſia,	Breſſici,	Breſſici.
Red Ruſſia,	Chelm,	Chelm.
	Beltz,	Beltz.
	Lemberg.	Lemberg.
Podolia,	Upper Podolia,	Caminiec.
	Lower Podolia,	Braſlaw.
Volhinia,	Upper Volhinia,	Luſex, or Lucke.
	Lower Volhinia,	Bialgorod.

After

After the final diſmemberment, in 1793, Poland was diſtributed among the partitioning powers as follows.

Auſtria.	Little Poland. Red Ruſſia, or Galicia,
Pruſſia.	Great Poland. Poliſh Pruſſia. A ſmall part of Lithuania. Maſovia. Polachia.
Ruſſia.	Samogitia. Remainder of Lithuania. Poleſia. Volhinia. Podolia.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Poland eſteemed?

M. Upon the whole, it is temperate; in the northern parts it is very cold, but exceedingly healthy.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. In general it is extremely rich. The earth is of various kinds, colours, and properties; ſome being excellent for the potter's uſe, and furniſhing all Poland with earthenware; while other parts ſupply the pipemakers, &c. with clay of different ſorts.

2. *Vegetable and Animal Productions.*

S. Is Poland fruitful in vegetable productions?

M. Extremely ſo: vaſt quantities of corn grow in that kingdom, and the paſtures are amazingly fine. Various ſorts of fruits, particularly ſome fine grapes are produced there; but the wine, made from them, ſeldom comes to perfection. In May and June the inhabitants gather a ſort of manna, which, in thoſe months, falls on the graſs, and make it into ſeveral kinds of diſhes.

S. What animals are there in Poland?

M. Wild horſes and aſſes buffaloes, wolves, boars, elks, and bohacs. There are alſo birds of various kinds.

3. *Rivers and Lakes.*

S. What are their principal rivers?

M. The Viſtula, or Weyſel; the Worta; the Nieſter, or Tyras; the Nieper, or Boriſtenes? the Niemen; the Bog, or Vagus; and the Dwina.

S. Are there any lakes in Poland?

M. Very few; in the palatinates of Brzeſc and Birals, there is one called Gopto, or the white lake, which is ſaid to turn the complexion of thoſe who waſh in it ſwarthy.

4. *Mountains, Mines and Foreſts.*

S. What remarkable mountains are there in Poland;

M. The principal of theſe are the Cropach, or Carpathian mountains, which form a craggy ridge, extending three hundred miles in length, ſeparating Poland from Hungary. In the palatinates of Cracow, is a mountain called the Wonderful, covered with aromatic plants, flowers, oaks, pines, full of metals and minerals, and abounding both in freſh and ſalt ſprings: near the center riſes with a remarkable noiſe, a ſpring of clear water, the ebullition of which is greater or leſs, according to the increaſe or decreaſe of the moon. It is eſteemed ſalutary by the inhabitants in moſt diſorders, they ſeldom having a fit of ſickneſs, and in general, living to the age of 100, or 150, which they attribute to the wonderful properties of this ſpring. By applying a lighted torch to the water it catches fire, and the only method of extinguiſhing the flame is by bruſhing it with a broom.

S. Are there any mines in Poland?

M. Yes, of gold, ſilver, copper, lead, iron, pit-coal, vitriol, arſenic and marble of all colours. But the moſt curious are their ſalt mines, which are of four different ſorts; one hard and bright as cryſtal; the ſecond ſofter and clearer; the third white and brittle; and the fourth freſher than the three former, which are all very brackiſh. There is likewiſe at Wietiez, a mine of moſt excellent rock-ſalt.

S. Have they any conſiderable foreſts?

M. Several, which produce great quantities of timber for all kinds of uſes; and the inhabitants frequently employ

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it to thoſe purpoſes for which in other countries they make uſe of brick and ſtone; their houſes are even covered with wood.

5. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. What commerce do the Poles carry on?

M. None; they leave all kinds of traffic to the city of Dantzic, and other port towns on the Baltic, and the Viſtula.

S. Have they any manufactures?

M. Yes, of woollen, linen, braſs and iron.

6. *Curioſities.*

S. Is Poland famous for any curioſities?

M. I have already given you a deſcription of the wonderful mountain and the ſalt mines, which form the principal curioſities of that kingdom. It is ſaid that wild men have been frequently found in the woods, and authors, endeavouring to account for the reaſon of ſuch phænomena, ſuppoſe them to have been left there when infants, by their parents, whom the Tartars frequently obliged to fly from their habititations; and that theſe children, ſo expoſed, have been nouriſhed by the bears, which, except in form, they entirely reſemble. In the mountains of Ikiow, are ſeveral grottos or catacombs, in which are found a great number of human bodies, perfectly preſerved, being neither ſo hard nor ſo black as the mummies of Egypt; ſome attribute this curioſity to the nature of the ſoil, which is a dry ſand.

7. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What number of inhabitants do Poland and Lithuania contain?

M. About fourteen millions.

S. What ſort of people are they?

M. In their perſons they are well proportioned and of a fair complexion; in their manners they are brave, hardy, honeſt, and hoſpitable.

S Have they any particular cuſtoms?

M. The Poliſh noblemen have an unbounded right over their peaſants or vaſſals, whoſe only ambition is to pleaſe their lord, never wiſhing for a better way of life, eſpecially if they are well fed; for it is a ſaying among them, that a man can never be wretched who has any thing to eat. The nobility are exceedingly delighted with pomp and parade, which they carry to exceſs. At an entertainment they never lay knives or forks, but each gueſt takes his own, and if he intends to lodge any time at the houſe he is going to, he muſt carry a bed with him. Their diverſions conſiſt in vaulting, dancing, ſkaiting, hunting, bull and bear baiting, and riding; of which exerciſe they are ſo fond, that they never ſtir out without their horſe.

8. *Religion and Language.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of Poland?

M. The nobility and the bulk of the nation, are Roman catholics; but there are a vaſt number of proteſtants, and theſe being joined to the followers of the Greek church, the whole are called Diſſidents.

S. What language do they ſpeak?

M. That of Poland is the Sclavonian; and that of Lithuania is a mixture of corrupted Latin.

9. *Learning, learned Men, and Univerſities.*

S. Are the Poles famous for learning or learned men?

M. Copernicus, Socinus, and Voſſius, were natives of Poland; but that kingdom is far from encouraging learning, which is certainly the reaſon that ſo few of the inhabitants endeavour to arrive at any tolerable degree of perfection in the ſciences.

S. Are there any univerſities?

M. Yes; three, viz. Cracow, Poſna, or Poſen, and Wilna.

10. *Government, Conſtitution, and Revenues.*

S. What was the conſtitution and government of Poland?

M. The king, in fact, was no more than a preſident of the ſenate, and was always elected by the nobility and clergy

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in the plains of Warſaw. Immediately after his election he ſigned the Pacta Conventa of the kingdom, thereby engaging to introduce no foreigners into the government or army. He had power to nominate the great officers of ſtate, but not to diſplace them when once appointed, and they were accountable only to the ſenate for their actions. The number of theſe officers were ten, viz two great marſhals, one of Poland, the other of Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom, and the vice-chancellor of the duchy; the treaſurer of the kingdom, and the treaſurer of the duchy; the ſub-marſhal, or maſhal of the court of the kingdom; and the ſub-marſhal, or marſhal of the court of the duchy. Theſe ten were always ſenators, and, together with the primate, the archbiſhop of Lemburg, fifteen biſhops, and the Palatines and Caſtellans, formed the ſenate. Beſides theſe there were governors and judges in particular diſtricts, called ſtaroſts; and the Palatines and Caſtellans were always lord lieutenants and deputy lieutenants in their reſpective Palatinates. The diets of Poland were ordinary and extraordinary; the former met but once in two or three years, and the latter never, unleſs ſummoned by the king in caſes of emergency. There were likewiſe general and provincial diets, which laſt were alſo called chetines, wherein the gentry of each palatinate might ſit and chuſe deputies to carry their reſolutions to the general diet, which never ſat but ſix weeks, and was compoſed of the king, the ſenators, and the above deputies.

11. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What are the principal events in the hiſtory of Poland?

M. About the end of the fourteenth century, Jegellon, grand duke of Livonia, mounted the throne of that kingdom, and the crown continued in his family till 1552, when Henry, duke of Anjou, and Maximilian of Auſtria, became competitors for it, which was at length obtained by Henry. But his brother, Charles IX. king of France, dying ſoon after, he aſcended the throne of that kingdom, and the Poles elected Stephen Batori, prince of Tranſylvania, to be their king. This monarch eſtabliſhed a militia in Poland, compoſed of the Coſſacs, a ſavage race of men, and

and beſtowed the Uckraine, or frontiers of his kingdom, on them. Stephen dying in 1586, was ſucceeded by his ſon Sigiſmund, who was perpetually engaged in unſucceſsful wars with the Swedes and Turks. In the year 1632, his ſon Uladiſlaus aſcended the throne, who retaliated his father's ill ſucceſs on his enemies: before his death he had provoked the Coſſacs to revolt, and his brother John who ſucceeded him, was twice defeated by theſe people, and at laſt obliged to accept of a diſhonourable peace. Soon after Ruſſia declared war againſt John, and about the ſame time Charles X. of Sweden, ſubdued Great and Little Poland, and having entered Poliſh Pruſſia, every town ſubmitted to him except Dantzic. John was obliged to fly into Sileſia, where being joined by the Tartars he attacked and drove the Swedes back to their own country with infinite loſs; after which, finding the Poles diſſatiſfied with his government, he retired into the abbey of St. Germains in France.

Michael Wieſnowiſki, a private gentleman, was now elected to the throne; but his reign was very diſgraceful to the Poles: for the Coſſacs having joined the Turks, diſpoſſeſſed them of their ſtrongeſt towns, and their affairs would have been irretrievable, had it not been for general John Sobieſki, who defeated the enemy in ſeveral engagements, and being on the death of Michael advanced to the throne, he continued the war with ſuch ſucceſs, that he obliged the Turks to remit the tribute they had impoſed upon Poland. This monarch died in 1696, and the Poles having conceived a ſuſpicion that he was deſirous of making the crown hereditary in his family, would not ſuffer his ſon to ſucceed him. Several competitors for the crown now entered the liſts; but Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, obtained the prize, and was crowned at Cracow in 1697. He was however driven from his throne by Charles XII. of Sweden, who placed Staniſlaus, father-in-law to the king of France, on the throne of Poland. Auguſtus was afterwards re-inſtated by Peter the Great, but was never fully eſtabliſhed in the kingdom; his ſubjects, who chiefly favoured Staniſlaus, being continually forming plots againſt him. He died in 1733, and notwithſtanding he had done all in his power to inſure the crown of Poland to his ſon Auguſtus, he was ſucceeded by Staniſlaus. That unfortunate monarch, however,

ever, was once more driven from his throne and kingdom; for Auguſtus having entered Poland with a numerous army, obliged him to retire into France. Auguſtus dying in 1763, was ſucceeded by count Staniſlaus Poniatowſki, late king of Poland, in whoſe reign the country of Poland was firſt violently diſmembered, and at length ſeized, and finally divided by its rapacious neighbours, Pruſſia, Auſtria, and Ruſſia. The firſt of theſe partitions was made in 1772, and the laſt in 1793. The latter invaſion was reſiſted by the Poles, headed by their gallant general Koſciuſko; but, after obtaining ſome conſiderable advantages, they were entirely defeated by their too powerful enemies. Warſaw was taken by the Ruſſians, and 9,000 of the unarmed inhabitants maſſacred, with brutal cruelty, by the barbarians under the command of the ſanguinary Suwarrow. The king was deprived of all authority, and removed by the orders of the empreſs of Ruſſia, firſt to Grodno, and ſoon afterwards to Peterſburg, where a palace and a penſion were aſſigned him, and where he died Feb. 11, 1798. With him ended the kingdom of Poland.

DIALOGUE XX.

Switzerland.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Switzerland?

M. It lies between 48 and 45 deg. of north latitude, and between 6 and 11 deg. of eaſt longitude.

S. What are the boundaries and dimenſions of this country?

M. It is bounded on the north by Alſace and Swabia; on the ſouth by Italy; on the eaſt by Tyrol, Trent, and the lake of Conſtance; and on the weſt by France. It is about 260 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. The different cantons and countries, the number of ſquare miles each contains, together with their chief cities, I have inſerted in the following table:

Countries Names.	*Square Miles.*	*Chief Cities.*
Berne, - - - - - - - - -	2,346	Berne.
Zurich, - - - - - - - - -	728	Zurich.

Countries

Countries Names.	*Square Miles.*	*Chief Cities.*
Schaffhauſen,	140	Schaffhauſen.
Baſil,	240	Baſil.
Lucern.	460	Lucern.
Underwalden,	270	Stantz.
Uri,	612	Altorf.
Suiſſe,	250	Suiſſe.
Friburg,	370	Friburg.
Zug,	112	Zug.
Soleure, or Solothurn,	253	Soleure.
Appenzel,	270	Appenzel.
Glaris,	257	Glaris.
Baden, Bremgarten, Mellingen,	216	Baden. Bremgarten. Mellingen.
Rhintal,	40	Rheineck.
Turgow,	119	Frowanfield.
Lugano, Locarno, Mendris, Magia,	850	Lugano. Locarno. Mendris. Magia.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. What is the air of Switzerland?

M. Extremely cold in winter, from the vaſt quantities of ſnow which cover the mountains, and the frozen rivers and lakes.

S. Is the ſoil fruitful?

M. It is very unequal; for the inhabitants who reſide on one ſide of the mountains are often reaping, while thoſe on the oppoſite are only ſowing their grain: but upon the whole it produces very conſiderable quantities of corn, fruits, and eſculent vegetables.

2. *Metals, Minerals, and Mountains.*

S. Does Switzerland contain any metals and minerals?

M Yes; there are mines of iron, and ſome of virgin ſulphur and cryſtal, Several ſprings of mineral waters are alſo found there.

M. Are

S. Are there any mountains?

M. Switzerland is divided from Italy by a long chain of the Alps, which a traveller muſt croſs to go from one country to the other; accordingly there are roads made over the four following mountains, Cenis, St. Bernard, Sampion, Sampton, and St. Gothard.

3. *Rivers and Lakes.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers in Switzerland?

M. The Rhine, the Rhone, the Ruſs, the Oglios, the Aar, the Thur, and the Zun.

S. Are there any lakes?

M. Yes; thoſe of Geneva, Conſtance, Zurich, Bienne, Thun, Neufchatel, and Lucern.

4. *Curioſities.*

S. Does Switzerland boaſt any natural curioſities?

M. Several; among which are numbers of ſurprizing hermitages, particularly one about two leagues from Friburg, which a hermit ſpent twenty-five years in forming, without receiving the leaſt aſſiſtance. It contains a chapel, a parlour, twenty-eight paces in length, twelve in breadth, and twenty feet in height; a cabinet, a kitchen, and a cellar; all cut out of the rock, to the ſummit of which he has carried his chimney, though an amazing height from his rooms. With inexpreſſible labour he has levelled the ſide of the rock, brought earth from the neighbouring parts, and formed a delightful garden. That nothing might be wanting to render his retreat perfect, the hermit obſerving drops of water diſtil from the ſeveral parts of the rock, followed the veins, by which means he made a reſervoir ſufficient to water his garden, and allay his thirſt. Other natural curioſities found there are pieces of the pureſt cryſtal, marcaſites, and other ſtones.

S. Are there any antiquities?

M. The ruins of Cæſar's wall, which extended from mount Zura, to the banks of lake Leman, being eighteen miles, are ſtill to be ſeen; and ſeveral other monuments of antiquity have been found near the baths of Baden.

5. *Commerce*

5. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. Have the inhabitants any commerce or manufactures?

M. Their traffic is very trifling, as were alſo their manufactures formerly; but of late years they have begun to fabricate linen, lace, ſtockings, handkerchiefs, velvets, ſilks, and ſtuffs.

6. *Vegetable and Animal Productions.*

S. Does Switzerland produce many vegetables?

M. Excellent paſture land, and conſiderable quantities of corn, and ſome wine. All ſorts of pot-herbs are found there; and ſome of the mountains are covered with trees, which afford excellent timber; and other aromatic herbs, which the inhabitants gather, and ſell under the name of Swiſs tea.

S. Are there any animals peculiar to Switzerland?

M. None; they have ſheep and cattle, and plenty of game, fiſh, and fowl.

7. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What number of inhabitants does Switzerland contain?

M. About two millions.

S. What kind of people are they?

M. Brave, hardy, faithful, and perſevering. They are bred to arms from their infancy, and ſupply foreign powers with excellent ſoldiers.

S. Have they any peculiar diverſions?

M. The little they take is of the warlike and active kind; fines are impoſed upon gaming and plays; even dancing, except at marriages, is prohibited.

8. *Religion, Learning, and learned Men.*

S. What religion do they profeſs in Switzerland?

M. The Proteſtant and the Roman Catholic.

S. Do they make any figure in learning or learned men?

M. I cannot ſay much in their favour on this head; however,

however, Geneva can boaſt a Rouſſeau, and excellent laws formed for them by the great Calvin. At preſent the ſciences begin to flouriſh in this country.

9. *Language and Univerſities.*

S. What is the language of Switzerland?

M. That moſtly uſed is German; but the inhabitants who border upon Italy ſpeak a corrupted Italian, as thoſe near France do a bad French.

S. Are there any univerſities?

M. Four, viz. Baſil, Zurich, Lauſanne, and Bern.

10. *Government, Conſtitution, and Revenues.*

S. What is the government and conſtitution of Switzerland?

M. The cantons of Bern, Zurich, and Lucern, with other dependencies, are ariſtocratical: and thoſe of Uri, Zug, Glaris, Appenzel, Schwitz, and Underwald, are democratical, Every canton forms a republic within itſelf, but if any diſputes ariſe which may affect the confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which aſſembles at Baden, and conſiſts of two deputies from each canton, beſides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bienne.

S. Has not the conſtitution and form of government in Switzerland lately undergone a conſiderable change?

M. The French, in the beginning of the year 1798, having prepared the way for a revolution in this country, by the intrigues of their emiſſaries, entered Switzerland with an army, and having defeated the force which oppoſed them, ſet up a conſtitution and form of government ſimilar to their own, by which all Switzerland was to be united in one republic, called the *Helvetic Republic*, and governed by a legiſlative body conſiſting of two councils, and a directory. Theſe councils met firſt at Arau, and afterwards at Lucern. Since, however, the recommencement of the war with ſuch rapid ſucceſs on the part of the allies, the directory and conſtituted authorities have been obliged to fly before the conquerors, and it is probable that

that the old conſtitution and forms of government will ſoon be reſtored.

S. What do the revenues amount to?

M. It is impoſſible to aſcertain; but whatever is ſaved after the expences of government are defrayed, is laid up as a common ſtock.

11. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. Have we any ſatisfactory accounts relative to the hiſtory of Switzerland?

M. Theſe people are the deſcendants of the ancient Helvetii, who were firſt conquered by Julius Cæſar, and then lived in ſubjection to the Germans and Burgundians till about the year 1300, when they were treated with ſuch cruelty by the emperor Albert I. that they reſolved to throw off his yoke. Accordingly they aſſaſſinated the tyrant, and the union of the cantons daily encreaſing, they were ſoon powerful enough to defeat the united arms of France and Germany; and in the year 1648, at the treaty of Weſtphalia, this brave confederacy was declared a free and independent ſtate.

The republic of Geneva, which is an ally of the Swiſs, is ſituated on the borders of a lake of the ſame name. It is a ſmall republic, and its inhabitants profeſs the proteſtant religion, as reformed by Calvin. It contains about forty thouſand ſouls.

The other allies of the Swiſs are the republics of Valais, St. Gall, Toggenburg, and Neufchatel.

DIALOGUE XXI.

Italy.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Italy?

M. One of the fineſt in the world. It lies between 38 and 47 deg of north latitude; and between 7 and 19 deg. of eaſt longitude.

S. What are the boundaries of this charming country?

M. It is bounded on the north by Switzerland and the Alps;

Alps; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean ſea; on the eaſt by a part of Germany and the Gulph of Venice; and on the weſt by the Mediterranean, the Alps, and the river Var.

S. What are the dimenſions of Italy?

M. It is about 600 miles in length, and 400 in breadth; and contains an area of about 75,576 ſquare miles. But the following table, which contains the names of the countries, the princes, &c. to whom they belonged, previous to the conqueſts made by the French in that country, the area of each, and their chief cities, will give you a better idea of the dimenſions of Italy.

	Countries Names.	*Sq. Miles.*	*Chief Cities.*
To the king of Sardinia,	Piedmont,	6619	Turin.
	Savoy,	3572	Chambery.
	Montferrat,	446	Caſal.
	Aleſſandrina,	204	Aleſſandria.
	Oneglia,	132	Oneglia.
	Iſland of Sardinia,	6600	Cagliari.
To its own king,	Naples,	22000	Naples.
To the emperor,	Milan,	5431	Milan.
	Mantua,	700	Mantua.
	Mirandola,	120	Mirandola.
To the king of Naples,	Iſland of Sicily,	9400	Palermo.
	Pope's dominions,	14348	Rome.
To their reſpective princes.	Tuſcany,	6840	Florence.
	Maſſa,	82	Maſſa.
	Parma,	1225	Parma.
	Modena,	1560	Modena.
	Piombino,	100	Piombino.
	Monaco,	24	Monaco.
	Lucca,	286	Lucca.
To France,	Venaiſſin,	520	Avignon.
	Iſland of Corſica,	2520	Baſtia.
Republics,	St. Marino,	8	St. Marino.
	Genoa,	2400	Genoa.
	Venice,	8434	Venice.

	Countries Names.	*Sq. Miles.*	*Chief Cities.*
To Venice.	Iſtria P. - - -	1245	Capo D'Iſtra.
	Dalmatia P. - -	1400	Zara.
	Iſles of Dalmatia,	1364	
Iſlands in the Venetian dominions,	Cephalonia, - -	428	Cephalonica.
	Corfu, or Corcyra,	194	Corfu.
	Zant, or Zacynthus.	120	Zant.
	St. Maura, - -	55	St. Maura.
	Little Cephalonia,	14	
	Ithaca Olim, - -		
	Total -	75,576	

S. Have not the French erected ſome new republics in Italy?

M. After having driven the Auſtrians out of the Milaneſe, in the year 1796, they ſet up the *Ciſalpine Republic*, the territory of which included the duchies of Milan, Mantua, and Modena, the Venetian territories of Bergamo and Breſcia, the three papal legations of Ferrara, Bologna, and Romagna, a part of the country of the Griſons, and the four, as they were uſually called, Italian bailiwicks. This republic was divided into twenty departments, the extent of which was eſtimated at 3,567 ſquare miles, and the population at above three millions and a half of ſouls. The legiſlative body conſiſted of two councils, and the directory of four members.

The French likewiſe, in 1798, in conſequence of a tumult at Rome, in which general Duphot was killed, aboliſhed the Papal power, and erected a *Roman Republic*, at the head of which they placed five magiſtrates whom they denominated *Conſuls*. They likewiſe revolutionized the city of Genoa, where they ſet up the *Ligurian Republic*.

The republic of Venice, as has been before mentioned, they likewiſe changed into a democratical republic; but ſoon after, by the treaty of Campo Formio, ceded the city, and the greater part of the territory, to the emperor, to whom it ſtill remains ſubject.

In the beginning of the year 1799, the king of Naples having renewed the war with the French, they were at firſt

forced to evacuate Rome; but, ultimately proved ſo ſucceſsful, that they compelled his Sicilian Majeſty to fly from Naples, and retire to Sicily, where he ſtill remains. About the ſame time they likewiſe took poſſeſſion of the dominions of the king of Sardinia, and obliged the grand duke of Tuſcany to reſign his government into their hands. The ſignal ſucceſſes, however, which have attended the arms of the allies, ſince the recommencement of the war, will probably ſoon reſtore the different territories of Italy to their former ſovereigns.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Italy ſalutary?

M. It varies in different parts, ſome being very warm, and others very cold; but in general it may be pronounced dry, pure, and healthy.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. Extremely rich and fertile.

2. *Vegetable and Animal Productions.*

S. If the ſoil is good, it muſt conſequently produce excellent vegetables.

M. It does in great abundance. The fruits of Italy are moſt delicious, particularly the olives, and the wines excellent: corn grows in ſufficient quantities for the inhabitants, and the ſoil would produce enough for exportation, if the lands were properly cultivated. The fineſt oil comes from this country, and vaſt quantities of ſilk.

S. What animals are there peculiar to Italy?

M. None; they have only ſuch as are common to France and Germany.

3. *Mountains, Mines, and Minerals.*

S. What mountains does Italy contain?

M. Several; among which the Alps, the Appennines, and Mount Veſuvius, are the moſt remarkable.

S. Are there any mines and minerals?

M. Great numbers of mines are found in the mountains, containing emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli,

lazuli, and other valuable ſtones; iron, copper, and the moſt beautiful marble. Italy alſo abounds in mineral ſprings, which are eſteemed very ſalubrious.

4. *Rivers and Lakes.*

S. What are the names of their principal rivers and lakes?

M. The Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber, are the names of the former; and the Maggiore, the Garda, the Iſeo, the Lugano, the Perugia, or Thraſimena, the Celano, the Bracciano, the Terni, and the Como, are thoſe of the latter.

5. *Curioſities Natural and Artificial.*

S. Are there any curioſities to be found in Italy?

M. They are ſo numerous that it is impoſſible for me to give you any particular account of them. Among the antiquities are great numbers of Roman edifices, pillars, &c. ſome almoſt entire, and others in ruins. The church of St. Peter at Rome ſtands firſt among the modern curioſities; as does Mount Veſuvius, and Mount Etna, the latter ſituated in the iſland of Sicily, among the natural ones.

6. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. In what does their traffic with foreign powers conſiſt?

M. In ſilks, velvets, wine, oil, olives, cheeſe, marble, and ſeveral other articles.

S. Have they any other manufactures?

M. Yes; of gold and ſilver ſtuffs, velvets, brocades, womens hats, gauze, &c.

7. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What number of inhabitants does Italy contain?

M. About twenty millions.

S. What ſort of people are they?

M. The men are uſually very effeminate, vindictive, and ſuperſtitious; and the women bold. Their perſons are generally well formed, and their complexions bad; but

but the ladies always wiſh for a fine ſet of features; perſuaded that it is the eaſieſt thing in nature to make a beautiful complexion.

S. Have they any particular cuſtoms?

M. None which redounds much to their honour. The married ladies have always a lover, or cicisbeo, with whom they often carry on the moſt public amour, without giving offence to the huſband, who is generally engaged as a cicisbeo to ſome other lady. Courtezans live in every city, protected by the laws. The diverſions of the Italians are operas, maſquerades, aſſemblies, running of horſes without riders, and religious exhibitions.

8. *Religion, Learning, and learned Men.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of Italy?

M. Popery, with all its groſſeſt errors.

S. In what ſtate is learning in Italy?

M. At a very low ebb now, though formerly it produced ſeveral great geniuſſes; Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, Strada, Fra. Paoli, Guicciardini, Bentivolio, Davila, Machiavel, Taſſo, Arioſto, Sannazarius, Fracaſtorius, Bembo, Vida, and Metaſtaſio, were all natives of that kingdom. Painting, ſculpture, architecture, and muſic, have likewiſe been carried to the greateſt perfection by the Italian artiſts; Raphael, and Michael Angelo, Titian, Bramante, Bernini, Giulio Romano, Corregio, Carraccio, Veroneſe, Correlli, &c. &c.

9. *Language and Univerſities.*

S. What is the language of Italy?

M. A corrupted Latin, but remarkable for the ſweetneſs of its ſound, and the intimate connection it has with muſic.

S. Are there any univerſities in that kingdom?

M. Yes; at Rome, Pavia, Venice, Bologna, Florence, Ferrara, Mantua, Piſa, Padua, Naples, Parma, Salerno, Verona, Peruſia, and Milan.

10. *Conſtitution and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution of Italy?

M. It conſiſts almoſt in as many particulars, as there are countries. each having its different form of government. One part of this delightful country is under monarchical government another under republican; in a third, the ariſtocratical prevails; and in a fourth, the eccleſiaſtical: ſo that a volume would hardly be ſufficient to explain the different forms of government eſtabliſhed in Italy. Here are ſeveral republics which have ſubſiſted many years: but the moſt remarkable is that of St. Marino. Its territories conſiſt of one ſingle mountain, high and craggy; and the inhabitants boaſt of having preſerved their liberties as a republic thirteen hundred years. It is under the protection of the pope, and the inoffenſive manners of the inhabitants, who do not amount to more than five thouſand, added to the ſmall value of their teritories, have preſerved the conſtitution of this minute republic.

S. What are the revenues and forces of Italy?

M. It is perhaps impoſſible to anſwer your queſtions with preciſion; but according to the beſt computations, the revenues of the different parts of Italy amount to near four millions; and the forces which the different princes and republics can bring into the field, have been computed at 150,000 men.

II. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What are the principal hiſtorical events of Italy?

M. It is generally ſuppoſed that this country was firſt peopled from Greece. Rome, the capital, was founded in 33 c, being 704 years before the birth of Chriſt, by Romulus, who aſſumed the title of king. In 3c18, the conſtitution was changed from a monarchy into a republic in which ſtate it ſubdued, and gave laws to the whole world. Rome could only be the deſtruction of Rome; and luxury accompliſhed what armies had attempted in vain. The Goths, Vandals, and other barbarous nations, made incurſions into Italy, and from the year 395, to 571, cauſed a horrid ſcene of cruelty and deva ſtation. During this period the conſtitution was once more changed, and Rome who ſome years before had put the great Julius Cæſar to death, on a ſuppoſition that he aſpired to the regal dignity, did not heſitate to acknowledge ſucceſſive emperors moſt of whom were a diſgrace to humanity. The firſt chriſtian emperor was

was Conſtantine, who reigned about the beginning of the fourth century, and removed the ſeat of empire from Rome to Conſtantinople. Some time after the empire itſelf was divided into two parts, the firſt called the Roman, and the ſecond the Grecian empire; the emperor of the former reſiding at Rome, and of the latter at Conſtantinople.

In the year 800, Charlemagne was crowned emperor of the Romans, and his ſucceſſors for ſome time claimed, and poſſeſſed the kingdom of Italy; but their civil commotions having given their governors an opportunity of aſſuming the ſovereignty of the different ſtates over which they preſided, it was ſoon divided into a number of principalities and ſtates, in which ſituation it remains to this day.

DIALOGUE XXII.

Turkey in Europe.

S. ARE the grand Signior's dominions wholly in Europe?

M. They are not; part of them lie in Europe, part in Aſia, and part in Africa.

S. What is the ſituation of Turkey in Europe?

M. It lies between 36 and 46 deg. of north latitude; and between 17 and 40 deg. of eaſt longitude.

S. What are the boundaries of the European part of the grand Signior's dominions?

M. Turkey in Europe is bounded on the north by Ruſſia, Poland, and Sclavonia; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean; on the eaſt by the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the Propontis, the Black-ſea, and Circaſſia; and on the weſt by the Mediterranean, and the territories of Auſtria and Venice.

S. What are the dimenſions and diviſions of European Turkey?

M. It is about 1000 miles in length, and 900 in breadth. The diviſions, ſubdiviſions, and the chief towns belonging to each, are given in the following table:

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
On the north coaſt of the Black Sea are the provinces of	Crim, and little Tartary, the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſe, Budziac Tartary,	Precop. Bachiſeria. Kaffa. Oczakow.
North of the Danube are the provinces of	Beſſarabia,	Bender. Belgorod.
	Moldavia, Olim Dacia,	Jazy. Chotzim. Falczin.
	Wallachia, another part of the ancient Dacia.	Tergoviſe.
South of the Danube, are	Bulgaria, the eaſt part of the ancient Myſia,	Widdin, Nicopoli. Siliſtria. Scopia.
	Servia, the weſt part of Myſia,	Belgrade. Semendria. Niſſa.
	Boſnia, part of the ancient Illyricum,	Seraio.
On the Boſphorus, and Helleſpont,	Romania, Olim Thrace,	Conſtantinople. Adrianople. Phillippopoli.
South of mount Rhodope, or Argentum, the north part of ancient Greece.	Macedonia,	Strymon. Conteſſa.
	Theſſaly,	Salonichi.
	Achaia and Bæotia, now Livadia,	Athens. Thebes. Lepanto.
On the Adriatic Sea, or gulph of Venice, the ancient Illyricum,	Epirus,	Chimæra. Butrinto.
	Albania,	Durazzo. Dulcigno.
	Dalmatia,	Drino. Narenza.
	Raguſa Republic,	Raguſa.

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
In the Morea, the ancient Peloponneſus, being the fouth diviſion of Greece.	Corinthia,	Corinth.
	Argos,	Argos. Napoli de Romania.
	Sparta,	Lacedemon, now Miſitra, on the river Eurotus.
	Olympia, where the games were held,	Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus.
	Arcadia,	Modon. Coron. Patras.
	Elis,	Elis. or Belvidere, on the river Peneus.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air ſalutary in this part of Turkey?

M. Exceedingly ſo; except when rendered otherwiſe by that of the neighbouring countries, and the indolence of the inhabitants.

S. What ſort of ſoil is it?

M. Luxuriantly rich; but far from being properly cultivated.

2. *Rivers and Lakes.*

S. Are there any capital rivers in that country?

M. Writers mention ſeveral; but thoſe moſt known at preſent, are the Danube, the Save, the Neiſter, the Nieper, and the Don.

S. What lakes are there in European Turkey?

M. None very remarkable; the moſt worthy of obſervation are Lago di Seutari, Lago di Plavi, Lago di Hotti, the Stymphalis, and the Phineus, which is the ſource of the river Styx, ſo much celebrated by the ancient poets.

3. *Mountains and Mines.*

S. Are there any mountains in this part of Turkey?

M. It is famous for them; the mounts Parnaſſus and Hæmus, mentioned ſo often by poets, are ſituated there; as are the mounts Pindus and Olympus, which ſeparate Theſſaly from Epirus; and mount Athos lies on a peninſula, running into the Ægean ſea.

S. Do the mountains contain any mines?

M. A variety of all kinds; and the marbles of Turkey are eſteemed ſuperior to thoſe of any other country.

5. *Vegetable and Animal Productions.*

S. Is Turkey fruitful in vegetables?

M. Exceedingly ſo; beſides all ſorts of pot and garden herbs, there are fruits of every kind in the higheſt degree of perfection: the moſt valuable drugs are produced here; and the inhabitants export great quantities of grain.

S. What animals are there in European Turkey?

M. The horſes are eſteemed both for their beauty and ſervice. Beſides theſe, they have all other kinds of quadrupeds and fowls, among which are exceedingly large eagles.

5. *Curioſities.*

S. Is Turkey in Europe famous for curioſities?

M. Theſe chiefly conſiſt of ruined antique fabrics, the moſt remarkable of which are Neptune's temple; the theatre, where the Iſthmean games were celebrated, on the Iſthmus of Corinth; the temples of Minerva, and of the eight winds; the lantern of Demoſthenes, at Athens: and the temple of Apollo at Caſtri. The famous cave of Trophonius, in Livadia, is a great natural curioſity.

6. *Iſlands belonging to Turkey in Europe.*

S. Are there not ſeveral iſlands belonging to European Turkey?

M. Yes; they form a part of ancient Greece, and are named as follows: Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros,



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80 degrees west 120 130 140 150 160 170 180 190
ARCTIC SEA
Taimura
Mouth of Lena
Lena R.
Yakutsk
YAKUTSK TUNGUSI
TUNGUSI
Oleminskoi
Vilui R.
Vilui
Yakutsk
Yenisei R.
Irkutsk
Selenginsk
Selenga R.
Kiachta
Nertchinsk
Argun R.
Amur R.
Albazin
Nipchu
Nipchu L.
Udskoi
Ud R.
Schantar I.
Schantar Is.
Okhotsk
Sea of Okhotsk
Kamtschatka
Penschinskaia Bay
Awatscha Bay
Petropaulowski
Bolscheretsk
Kamtschatka R.
Kamtschatka
Kamtschatka Pt.
Kourile Is.
Kourile I.
Kourile Pt.
Iles of Jesso
Jesso
Tarakai
Urup
Matsomai
Matsomai
Sea of Kamtschatka
Behring I.
Copper I.
Atcha
Tongoa
Foua
Foua R.
EASTERN TARTARY
MANCHUR TARTARY
NORTH PACIFIC OCEAN
Teitsecar
Sagalgolin R.
Tapado
Tapado R.
Selenginsk
Selenga R.
Chan R.
Kerlon
Kerlon R.
Mongolia
Mongolia
Shamo
Yongtsing
Yongtsing R.
Peking
Peking
Orlos
Orlos
Tayyuan
Lin
Hoanho R.
Hoanho R.
Gulf of Corea
Sea of Corea
Nankin
Nankin
Yellow R.
Yellow R.
Gr. Liquco
Liquco Is.
Japan Is.
Japan
Japan Pt.
Saddle Pt.
Nanlou
Nanlou
Nanlou
Tropic of Cancer
Fuchau
Fuchau
Fuchau
Formosa
Formosa
Formosa Str.
Canton
Canton
Canton R.
Macao
Macao
Macao
Tonkin
Tonkin
Tonkin
Tonkin G. of
Hainan I.
Hainan
Laos
Laos
Cochin China
Cambodia
Cambodia
Siam
Siam
Siam G. of
Malacca
Malacca
Malacca Str.
Sumatra
Sumatra
Sumatra

ros, Leſbos, or Myteline, Scio, or Chios, Patmos, the Cyclades iſlands, Delos, Paros, Cerigo, or Cytherea, Santorin, Rodes, Candia Cyprus, and the iſlands in the Ionian ſea, viz. Sapienza, Strivali, Zante, Cephalonia, Santa Maura, Corfu, and Iſola del Compace, the ancient Ithaca, famous for being the kingdom of Ulyſſes. There are ſeveral other ſmall iſlands not worthy particular notice.

DIALOGUE XXIII.

Aſia in general.

THIS quarter of the world is much larger than either Europe or Africa, and has been known from the infancy of time.

S. What has rendered it ſo remarkable?

M. It was here the all-wiſe Creator planted the garden of Eden in which he formed the firſt parents of the human race. After the deluge it became a ſecond time the nurſery of the world. Here the ark reſted; here the ſons of Noah dwelt; and hence they ſent out colonies into other parts of the globe. It was alſo here the great work of man's redemption was performed; and here the doctrine of the goſpel was firſt preached to the world. Here the firſt edifices were reared, the firſt monarchies founded, and the firſt chriſtian churches erected.

S. Is the air of Aſia ſalutary?

M. In moſt parts it is; but in ſo extenſive a country as this there muſt be ſpots where it is impregnated with deleterious vapours.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. Exuberantly rich; and produces amazing quantities of corn: fruits of the moſt delicious kind; and plants, drugs, and gums, celebrated for their medicinal qualities.

S. Is it alſo famous for its mineral ſubſtances?

M. It is. There are the fineſt gems, equally remarkable for their beauty, variety, and value. Gold, ſilver, copper, iron, ſalt petre, borax, and innumerable other ſubſtances are found in the mines of this delightful country.

S. What are the chief productions of Aſia?

M. Too many to be enumerated here; they will be conſidered in the different diviſions of this country.

S. What is the ſituation of Aſia?

M. It lies between the equator and 72 degrees of north latitude; and between 25 and 148 degrees of eaſt longitude.

S. What are its boundaries?

M. Aſia is bounded on the north by the frozen ocean; on the ſouth by the Indian ocean; on the eaſt by the Pacific ocean; and on the weſt by the Red-ſea, the Levant, the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the Propontis, the Black-ſea, the Palus Mæotis, the river Don, and by a line drawn from that river to the river Tobol, and thence to the river Oby, which falls into the frozen ocean.

S. What are the dimenſions of Aſia?

M. It is about 4800 miles in length, 4200 in breadth, and contains an area of eight millions of miles.

DIALOGUE XXIV.

Turkey in Aſia.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Aſiatic Turkey?

M. It lies between 28 and 45 degrees of north latitude; and between 27 and 45 degrees of eaſt longitude.

S. What are its boundaries and dimenſions?

M. It is bounded on the north by the Black-ſea and Circaſſia; on the ſouth by Arabia and the Levant; on the eaſt by Perſia; and on the weſt by the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, and the Propontis.

S. What are its dimenſions and diviſions?

M. It is about 1000 miles in length, and 870 in breadth: the diviſions, ſubdiviſions, &c. are contained in the following table.

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns:*
The eaſtern provinces are,	Irac-Arabia, or Chaldea,	Baſſora and Bagdat.
	Diarbec, or Meſopotamia,	Diarbec, Orfa, and Mouſoul.

Diviſions

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Chief Towns.*
The eastern provinces are,	Curdistan, or Assyria,	Nineveh and Betlis.
	Turcomania, or Armenia,	Erzerum & Van.
	Georgia, including Mingrelia, Imaretta, and part of Circassia.	Teflis and Gori.
	Natolia Proper,	Bursa, Nice, Smyrna, and Ephesus.
Natolia, or the lesser Asia, on the west.	Amasia,	Amasia, Trapezond, & Sinope.
	Aladulia,	Ajazzo and Marat.
	Caramenia,	Satalia and Terasso.
East of the Levant sea.	Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land,	Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jerusalem.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of this part of Turkey salubrious?

M. It is esteemed so, notwithstanding which the inhabitants here, as well as in European Turkey, are often visited with the plague.

S. Is the soil good?

M. Yes, in a remarkable degree, but far from being cultivated.

2. *Mountains, Mines, and Rivers.*

S. What are the principal mountains in Asiatic Turkey?

M. Olympus; Taurus; Anti-taurus; Caucasus; Ararat; Lebanon, and Hermon.

S. Are there any mines?

M. Yes, many; yielding all sorts of metals, &c. in great abundance.

S. What are the names of their principal rivers?

M. The Euphrates; the Tigris; the Jordan; the Sarabat; the Orontes; the Kara, and the Meander.

3. *Vegetable and Animal Productions.*

S. Do the vegetables arrive to any degree of perfection in this part of Turkey?

M. To the higheſt: but through the indolence of the inhabitants there is very little of their land cultivated; that part which is, yields very good corn, and grain of various kinds; great quantities of excellent fruits, viz. oranges, lemons, figs, grapes, from which moſt exquiſite wine is made; citrons, olives, dates, &c. coffee, rhubarb, balſam, opium, gall-nuts, and other valuable drugs, and rich gums, are produced here in great abundance.

S. Are there any animals peculiar to Aſiatic Turkey?

M. No quadrupeds that I know of, but they have every kind which is neceſſary for uſe; vaſt herds of goats and kids, ſheep and cattle. Their horſes are, beyond expreſſion, beautiful, and their camels, which they uſe for carrying burthens, of infinite ſervice to them. The rivers and ſea-coaſts abound with all ſorts of fiſh; and as to fowls, they have both wild and tame in vaſt perfection. The oſtrich is an inhabitant of this climate.

4. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. In what does the commerce of Turkey conſiſt?

M. The Turks, either from indolence, or other cauſes, attend very little to trade. Their exports chiefly conſiſt in cotton, ſilk, grograms, goats-hair, carpets, tapeſtries, calicuts, Cordovan leather, and a variety of drugs and gums.

S. Have they any manufactures?

M. Yes, of the above articles, to which may be added ſoap, and dying ſtuffs.

5. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What ſort of people are the Turks?

M. Both men and women, when young, are rather handſome; but the latter ſoon look old. In general, they are ſedate and paſſive, but, when provoked, they are furious, diſſembling, and vindictive. Though it is impoſſible for a Chriſtian, Jew, or any other ſect who differ from their tenets,

tenets, to gain their friendſhip, they carry it to great heights towards thoſe of their own perſuaſion; and poſſeſs a fund of charity and public ſpirit. At their meals, of which ſupper is the chief, they are temperate both in eating and drinking, wine being forbidden them by their law. They are fond of ſmoaking tobacco, drinking coffee, and chewing opium. They are exceedingly illiterate, ſeldom reading any other book than the Koran, or what relates to it. A man may marry as many wives as he can maintain; beſides which, the moſt wealthy keep a number of concubines, and all the women are cloſely confined in ſeraglios, or harams.

S. Have they any particular diverſions?

M. Shooting at a mark, or tilting with darts, are their principal active diverſions; as cheſs or draughts form thoſe within doors: but they never bet, or game for money, both being prohibited them by their law.

6. *Curioſities.*

S. Are there any curioſities to be found in this part of Turkey?

M. As I have already obſerved, they chiefly conſiſt in ancient ruins, eſpecially thoſe of Balbec and Palmyra, deſcriptions of which have employed many able pens, and filled ſeveral volumes. At Jeruſalem they pretend to ſhew every place where each particular of our Saviour's paſſion was tranſacted, though it is well known that even the city itſelf does not ſtand on the ſame ſpot of ground it did at that period.

7. *Religion and Language.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of Turkey?

M. Mahometan, ſo called from Mahomet its founder.

S. What language do the inhabitants ſpeak?

M. Three different tongues; the Sclavonian; the modern Greek; and the Syriac.

8. *Conſtitution, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution of Turkey?

M. Abſolute deſpotiſm.

S. What is the form of government?

M. By officers of ſtate, who act under the grand ſignior or emperor: the names of theſe are as follow: The grand vizier, or prime miniſter; the mufti, or high prieſt; the viziers of the bench, who ſit in the divan, or courts of juſtice; the cadaliſquiers, or chief juſtices of provinces; the beglerbegs or viceroys; the baſhaws (pachas *) or governors of provinces under the viceroys; the kaimacan, or governor of Conſtantinople; the treaſurer; the chamberlain; and ſeveral other officers of the houſhold; the aga, or general of the janizaries; and the captain pacha, or admiral. It is ſeldom that the Turks themſelves are raiſed to theſe dignities; but the children of renegadoes and chriſtians, who are taken when young and educated at the grand ſignior's expence, purpoſely to fill theſe poſts.

S. What do the revenues of Turkey amount to annually?

M. They muſt be immenſe, but it is impoſſible to aſcertain the exact ſum; for beſides the great taxes which are levied upon chriſtians, and others who are not Mahometans, and the riches drawn from the ſeveral provinces, the emperor often puts the pachas, who are generally immenſely rich, to death, and appropriates all their money, goods, &c. to his own uſe. This is done without alledging any particular crime againſt them, or allowing them any trial.

9. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What are the hiſtorical events of Turkey?

M. The Turks, or Turcomans, an appellation which implies wanderers, are deſcended from a tribe of the ancient Scythians or Tartars, who in ſeveral centuries extended their conquests from the ſhore of the Caſpian ſea, to the ſtreights of the Dardanelles. At length, being employed as mercenaries by the king of Perſia, they ſeized upon that kingdom, and, about the year 1347, had poſſeſſed themſelves of ſome of the beſt provinces in Aſia; of Nice, and of Pruſa, in Bithynia. At this time Othman their leader embodied them into a nation: fixed his capital at Pruſa;

* The modern ſpelling derived from the French, and pronounced *paſhaw*.

and

and changed the appellation of Turks, by which this people had been hitherto known, into that of Othmans, or Ottomans. They did not make any conquests in Europe till about the year 1357, when Amurath, their emperor, made Adrianople the seat of empire. By degrees the Turks entirely subdued the Greeks, and, in 1453, Mahomet II. after a long siege, took Constantinople, and put an end to the Greek empire, after it had existed ten centuries. All Greece now submitted to the conquerors, and the Greeks have ever since lived under the Turkish government. In 1481, Mahomet died, and since that period the following emperors have filled the throne of Othman.

Bajazet II. who was murdered, and succeeded by his son Selim. This emperor annexed Egypt, Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and several other places to his dominions. In 1520, Soliman the Magnificent, son to Selim, ascended the throne. The reign of this emperor was passed in a series of successful wars against the Christians. He dying in 1566, was succeeded by his son, Selim II. who was defeated by the Christians in a sea engagement, which was near proving fatal to the Turkish power. On the other hand, he took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis, in Africa, from the Moors. Amurath III. his son, ascended the throne in 1575, and having obliged the Persians to give up several strong towns to the Turks, and taken Raab, in Hungary, he died in 1593, and Mahomet III. succeeded to the crown. He was cruel, and unsuccessful in his wars against the Christians; and, in 1604, died of the plague. Achmet, his successor, was victorious over the Austrians, but defeated by the Persians. At his death, Osman, a youth of sixteen, ascended the throne, and was assassinated by the Janissaries, in 1623. Amurath IV. was then declared emperor. He took Bagdad from the Persians, and dying in 1640, was succeeded by his brother Ibrahim, who reigned but eight years, being strangled by the Janissaries. Mahomet, who succeeded Ibrahim, took Candia from the Venetians, and then carried on a successful war against the Austrians; after which he was imprisoned by his subjects till his death, which happened in 1693. Soliman II. and Achmet II. the two succeeding emperors, were very unfortunate in their wars. In 1693, Mustapha succeeded to the throne; and in 1699, concluded

concluded a peace with the Imperialiſts; ſoon after which he was depoſed, and his brother, Achmet III. aſcended the throne. This emperor was very unſucceſsful in his wars both againſt the Auſtrians and Perſians, and being depoſed, Mahomet V. was advanced to the throne. He was not more fortunate than his predeceſſor, being obliged to acknowledge Kouli Khan, the uſurper, ſophi of Perſia. He died in 1754, as did his brother and ſucceſſor, Oſman III. in 1757. He was ſucceeded by Muſtapha III. who was engaged in a war with Ruſſia, in which the Turks ſuffered ſeveral defeats. He died in 1774, and was ſucceeded by Achmet IV. who died in 1789, when Selim III. the preſent emperor, aſcended the throne.

DIALOGUE XXV.

Tartary in Aſia.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Aſiatic Tartary?

M. It lies between 30 and 72 degrees of north latitude, and between 50 and 150 of eaſt longitude.

S. What are its boundaries?

M. It is bounded on the north by the frozen ocean: on the ſouth by China, India, Perſia, and the Caſpian ſea; on the eaſt by the Pacific ocean; and on the weſt by Muſcovy. But tho' theſe are the limits generally given to this extenſive country by geographers, they are far from being the preciſe boundaries of Tartary. Theſe are unknown even by the neighbouring nations; the line, for inſtance, that divides Muſcovy from Tartary, is not known even to the Ruſſians themſelves, the ſame may be ſaid of the boundaries that ſeparate it from China and Perſia. The truth is, thoſe parts of the above countries through which the lines of diviſion paſs, are very thinly, if at all inhabited; they are deſert and waſte, and therefore of very little value.

S. What are its dimenſions and diviſions?

M. Its dimenſions, for the reaſons already given, muſt be very uncertain: moſt geographers, however, make it 4000 miles in length, and 2400 in breadth. The diviſions, ſubdiviſions, &c. are given in the following table.

Diviſions.

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
North eaſt diviſion.	Kamtſchatka Tartars,	Kamtſchatka.
	Jakutſkoi Tartars,	Jakutſkoi.
South eaſt diviſion.	Bratſki.	Bratſki.
	Thibet and Mongul Tartars,	Poion.
		Kudak.
North weſt diviſion.	Samoieda,	Mangaſia.
	Oſtiack,	Kortſkoi.
South weſt diviſion.	Circaſſia and Aſtracan Tartary,	Terki.
		Aſtracan.
Middle diviſion.	Siberia,	Tobolſki.
	Kalmuc and Uſbec Tartary,	Bokharia.
		Samarcand.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Tartary warm or cold?

M. This country is of ſuch vaſt extent, that the air conſequently is very different in different parts: in the northern extremity it is exceſſive cold; but in the more ſouthern parts it is much warmer.

S. What is the ſoil?

M. In the northern provinces the ground is covered with ſnow nine months out of the twelve; but thoſe ſituated in the ſouth, would produce corn, or almoſt any other kind of vegetables, if properly cultivated. The Tartars, however, ſeldom give themſelves the trouble of trying their lands; for being of a wandering diſpoſition, they drive their cattle before them till they arrive at a place of good paſturage, where they fix their tents, till the graſs is all deſtroyed, and then ſet forwards in ſearch of more.

2. *Mountains, Mines, and Rivers.*

S. What mountains are there in Tartary?

M. The moſt remarkable are thoſe of Caucaſus, in Circaſſia, and Taurus and Ararat contiguous to it.

S. Does that country contain any mines?

M. Siberia is ſuppoſed to contain mines of gold, ſilver, iron, copper, jaſper, loadſtone, and lapis lazuli.

S. What

S. What are the names of the principal rivers in Tartary?

M. The Argun, which divides the Ruſſian and Chineſe empires; the Geneſa or Jenſka; the Tabol; the Lena; the Irtis; the Argun; the Obey, which divides Aſia from Europe; and the Wolga, which runs a courſe of two thouſand miles.

3. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are there in Tartary?

M. Such quadrupeds as are common in the northern parts of Europe; and near Aſtracan is found a particular bird, which the Ruſſians call Baba.

S. Does Tartary produce any vegetables?

M. I have already obſerved, that the inhabitants are too indolent to cultivate their lands in any great degree; the few parts which are cultivated, produce exceeding fine grapes, and other fruits; and in many places the graſs, without any kind of culture, grows to an amazing height. Coffee, rhubarb, aloes, and ſeveral other kinds of medicinal drugs are produced here.

4. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. In what does the commerce of Tartary conſiſt?

M. In drugs, ſkins, beavers, and fiſh. The natives of Aſtracan carry on a conſiderable traffic with the Perſians in red leather, woollen and linen cloth, &c.

S. Are there many manufactures in Tartary?

M. Yes, of different kinds; moſt of which commenced ſince the Swediſh and Ruſſian priſoners have been baniſhed into Siberia.

5. *Inhabitants, Manners, and Religion.*

S. What number of inhabitants does Tartary contain?

M. It is impoſſible to aſcertain, or even to form any tolerable gueſs; but it is univerſally concluded that the number is not at all proportioned to the great extent of country.

S. What ſort of people are they?

M. The men are ſtrong made, with broad faces, flat noſes,

noſes and ſmall, quick, black eyes. The beauty of the Circaſſian women has been long celebrated; and their infamous parents ſell them, while extremely young, to ſupply the ſeraglio of the grand ſignior, and thoſe of other great men. The Tartars are very hoſpitable to each other, and to ſtrangers who claim their protection.

S. Have they any particular cuſtoms?

M. I informed you of their manner of travelling from one place to another, with their flocks and herds; the tending of which, together with hunting and managing their horſes, are their chief employments. They poſſeſs a great ſhare of filial love, paying the moſt ſtrict obedience to their parents: they even carry this to what a chriſtian muſt term, a cruel height; for if their father or mother is ſeized with an incurable diſtemper, or grown quite infirm through age, they build a little hut near a river, into which they put the patient, with ſome proviſions, and leave the place, ſcarcely ever returning to ſee what is become of the unhappy victim. The reaſon they aſſign for this extraordinary conduct is, that they do their parents a kindneſs in ſending them to a better world. They are exceedingly fond of horſe-fleſh, which they dreſs in various ways. Their wives they purchaſe with cattle, and, after they are turned of forty, employ them in the moſt menial ſervices, even obliging them to wait on the young wives who have ſucceeded to their places, and who, in their turn, muſt expect the ſame treatment. They live, during winter, in huts half ſunk into the ground; the fire being in the centre, with a hole in the roof to let out the ſmoak, and round this fire are benches to ſit or lie upon.

S. What religion do theſe people profeſs?

M. It in ſome meaſure partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the popiſh religions; ſo that they are never at a loſs in accommodating themſelves to the religion of ſuch neighbours as, in their frequent peregrinations, they may chance to fix near.

6. *Curioſities.*

S. Are there any curioſities in Tartary?

M. M. Voltaire, in his hiſtory of Peter the Great, mentions a ſubterraneous houſe of ſtone, which was diſcovered in

in Calmuc Tartary, in the year 1720, containing ſome urns, lamps, ear-rings, and equeſtrian ſtatues; an oriental prince with a diadem on his head; two women ſeated on thrones; and a roll of manuſcripts, written in the language of Tibet. Gold and ſilver coins of different princes have likewiſe been found, and ſeveral manuſcripts neatly written.

7. *Government.*

S. What is the government of Tartary?

M. The Tartars who inhabit Siberia, are ſubject to the Ruſſians, and the Uſbec Tartars were made tributaries to Perſia by Kouli Khan: ſo that at preſent there are ſcarcely any independent Tartar nations, and thoſe few own themſelves ſubjects to any power on whoſe frontiers they happen to pitch their tents.

8. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What are the hiſtorical events of Tartary?

M. Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, belonged to thoſe innumerable barbarians who deſtroyed the Roman empire, and peopled the northern parts of Europe: nor is there any doubt but Uſbec Tartary was once the ſeat of a very powerful empire, and the native country of the great Tamerlane, though at preſent there are not the leaſt remains of its former magnificence.

The preſent inhabitants are divided into tribes, each commanded by its own chief, whom they term khan. Theſe khans pay a tribute, as an acknowledgment of dependence upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who always treat them with the utmoſt lenity; for being a brave people, and able to aſſemble in the field in vaſt numbers, they prove powerful enemies; and thoſe tribes, who term themſelves independent, are continually committing depredations on their neighbours. They carry on a war in the ſame manner their anceſtors have done for many centuries, viz. by waſting the country, and thereby depriving their enemies of ſubſiſtence, while they, who have always horſes ſufficient, are at no loſs for proviſions.

DIA-

DIALOGUE XXVI.

The Empire of China.

Conſiſting of China and Chineſe Tartary.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of China?

M. It lies between 20 and 55 degrees of north latitude; and between 95 and 135 of eaſt longitude.

S. What are its boundaries?

M. It is bounded on the north by Ruſſian Tartary; on the ſouth by the ſea of China: on the eaſt by the Pacific Ocean; and on the weſt by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries of Tibet and Ruſſia.

S. What are the dimenſions of this country?

M. It is about 2000 miles in length, and 1600 in breadth. The provinces into which it is divided, their extent in ſquare miles, and amazing population, are contained in the following table.

Provinces.	*Population,*	*Sq. Miles.*
Pe-che-lee,	38,000,000	58,949
Kiang-nan, two provinces,	32,000,000	92,964
Kiang-ſee.	19,000,000	72,176
Toke-kiang,	21,000,000	39,150
Fo-chen,	15,000,000	53,480
Hou-pe, Hou-quang.	14,000,000	144,470
Hou-nan, Hou-quang.	13,000,000	
Ho-nan,	25,000,000	65,104
Shan-tung,	24,000,000	65,104
Shan-ſee,	27,000,000	55,268
Shen-ſee,	18,000,000	154,008
Kan-ſou,	12,000,000	
Se-chuen,	27,000,000	166,800
Canton,	21,000,000	79,456
Quang-ſee,	10,000,000	78,250
Yu-nan,	8,000,000	107,969
Koci-cheou,	9,000,000	64,554
Total	333,000,000	1,297,999

The

The population aſſigned to China, in this ſtatement, muſt certainly appear at firſt view highly exaggerated, but it was delivered to lord Macartney at his requeſt by Chow-ta Zhin, a Chineſe mandarin. and is founded on authentic documents taken from one of the public offices in Pekin; and Sir George Staunton, who compiled the judicious and authentic account of the late Engliſh embaſſy to China, aſſigns ſeveral reaſons why it ſhould not be accounted incredible, though it appears from it that every mile of that vaſt empire contains upon an average about one third more inhabitants, than are found upon an equal extent of ground in the moſt populous country in Europe.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. What is the air of China?

M. It varies according to the ſituation of places; in the ſouthern parts it is hot, in thoſe of the north, cold; and in the middle diviſions temperate.

S. Is the ſoil fertile?

M. In many places it is naturally ſo; and where nature has been wanting, the induſtry of the inhabitants ſupplies her deficiencies by art.

2. *Mountains and Mines.*

S. Are there any mountains or mines in China?

M. In the northern parts there are mountains, moſt of which contain mines; and, according to ſeveral authors, China produces all kinds of metals and minerals, among which is a white copper peculiar to itſelf. Gold and ſilver mines are alſo found there, but not properly worked, from political motives.

3. *Rivers and Canals.*

S. What are the principal rivers in China?

M. The Hoang-ho, or the Yellow River, the Tay, the Kiang, or the Blue River, the Yamour, and the Argun, which forms the boundary between the Ruſſian and Chineſe Tartary.

S. Is not China famous for its canals?

M. Yes;

M. Yes; they are the largeſt and moſt commodious of any in the known world, extending ſometimes above a thouſand miles in length, and deep enough to carry large veſſels. The ſides of ſeveral of theſe canals are lined with hewn ſtone, and every precaution taken to ſecure them from the torrents which deſcend from the mountains; and from the floods of rapid rivers which chance to croſs them.

4. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are there to be found in China?

M. Elephants, camels, both wild and tame; a very large ſpecies of bears, called man-bear, the horſe-tyger, the muſk-deer, the odoriferous roe-buck, and a great variety of ſtags; among which is a very ſmall kind, extremely beautiful, which the nobles purchaſe at an extraordinary price to keep in their gardens. Among their fiſh is the ſea-horſe, which in ſhape ſomewhat reſembles that animal, and is a ſpecies of the cray-fiſh. But the moſt curious fiſh in China, and indeed in the whole world, is the gold and ſilver fiſh, of which the former is the male, and the latter the female; but a particular deſcription of them would be needleſs, as they are now to be found in moſt capital China-ſhops, and many other places in London. The fowls of China are the Hai Ying, or king of the birds of prey; parrots of all kinds; a particular ſort of ravens, birds of paradiſe, pelicans, peacocks, moſt beautiful pheaſants, cranes, and falcons: beſides which, they have every ſpecies of domeſtic and water-fowl common to other parts of Aſia.

S. What are the vegetable productions of China?

M. Every ſpecies of herbs, pulſe, and fruit, which other climates produce, are to be found in China; beſides many peculiar to itſelf, among which are ſeveral medicinal roots and plants. Variety of ſhrubs and ever-greens are likewiſe natives of that country, particularly the tea-ſhrub, which is generally diſtinguiſhed into four ſort, viz. Song-lo-tcha, Vou-y-tcha, Pou-eul-tcha, and a ſpecies which grows wild; the three former being cultivated. The manner of cultivating the tea-ſhrub is this: they plant them in rows, after which they are pruned, to prevent their growing too high;

high; the natural height of the firſt being ten feet. In four or five years they are re-planted, which prevents the leaf from becoming thick, hard, and rough. The flowers are white, compoſed of five petals, and ſhaped like a roſe; theſe are ſucceeded by berries in the form of a nut, partaking of the taſte of the leaf. The leaves of the ſecond ſort are ſhort and round at the top. Of this ſhrub the inhabitants make three pickings, viz. firſt, the tender leaf when it firſt appears: this is ſeldom expoſed to ſale, but ſent as preſents to the emperor, and other great perſons. Secondly, when the leaves are of a middling ſize; and thirdly, when they are full grown. The third ſpecies differs from the two former, being a buſhy ſhrub: the decoction made from its leaves is eſteemed exceedingly ſalutary by the inhabitants. The fourth ſort is little inferior to the other three, though produced without culture; but the Chineſe, from intereſted motives, always condemn it.

S. Are there not ſome remarkable trees in China?

M. Yes, of which I ſhall particularize a few; and firſt the tallow tree, the fruit of which has all the properties of tallow, in ſmell, colour, and conſiſtency; and is uſed by the natives for making their candles. Secondly, the wax-tree, to the leaves of which a little worm fixes itſelf and forms a comb, which it fills with a hard, white, and ſhining wax, very valuable. Thirdly, the Tſi Chu, and Tong Chu; both which trees produce very beautiful varniſhes, but are of a poiſonous quality. And, fourthly, the Nunmon, or Iron-wood, which the Chineſe uſe in all their edifices inſtead of ſtone, ſuppoſing it will endure for ever. Beſides theſe, there are the Tſe Tam, or Roſe-wood, the Vouytcha, the Caſſia Fiſtula, the Cinnamon-tree, the Pepper-tree, the Pea-tree, and the Camphire-tree. The inhabitants are indefatigable in the culture of their rice, and of their cotton ſhrubs; from which two articles the chief part of them are cloathed and fed. The cotton ſhrub riſes about two feet in height, and bears a yellow flower ſometimes tinged with red; this is ſucceeded by a pod, which when opened contains three or four bags in the form of a ſilk-worm's cod, filled with an exceedingly white cotton.

5. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. In what does the commerce of China conſiſt?

M. In ſilks, both raw and manufactured; cottons, porcelaine, drugs, tea, japan-ware, ink, and innumerable other articles

S. Are they curious in their manufactures?

M. Exceedingly ſo; particularly in thoſe of ſilk, cotton, porcelaine, and japan-ware.

6. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What ſort of people are the inhabitants of China?

M. The men are middle ſized, with broad faces, ſmall black eyes, and ſhort noſes. The women have little eyes, red lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate complexion. The Chineſe are famous for their hypocriſy and diſhoneſty: it being almoſt impoſſible to deal with them, and not be cheated. Their addreſs and manner are inconceivably inſinuating and civil, though at the ſame time they are trying to rob and over-reach you. All places and preferments are procured by bribes, or, as they term them, preſents; and without theſe it is impoſſible to obtain the moſt trifling favour from this fordid people.

S. Have the Chineſe any particular cuſtoms?

M. The men of letters let their finger nails grow to an enormous length, to ſhew that they are not employed in manual labour. The women eſteem ſmall feet a great beauty, and bind and ſwathe them from infancy to prevent their growth, by which practice they ſo cripple themſelves that they may be ſaid to totter rather than walk. Their marriages are very peculiar, for it never depends on the conſent of the parties to be married the bargain having been concluded by their parents when they were perfect children, and the bridegroom ſeldom ſees his bride till ſhe is conducted to his houſe by her friends and relations This is done with great pomp and ceremony, if the families are rich. All people of diſtinction in China cauſe their tombs to be built, and their coffins made, while they are yet living I have already mentioned their canals, but forgot to inform you that almoſt as many inhabitants

habitants live in veſſels on them, as live on land; for wherever there is a town on ſhore, there is another of boats upon the water; where numbers of people are born, and where they live and die.

7. *Curioſities and Antiquities.*

S. Does China boaſt of any curioſities?

M. No nation more of the artificial kind, but very few that are natural. The latter chiefly conſiſt in volcanos, lakes, and rivers, ſituated in different provinces. The moſt remarkable artificial curioſities are the Chineſe bridges, which are ſometimes built upon barges, chained together in ſuch a manner as to ſeparate at pleaſure, and let the veſſels paſs by which ſail upon the river: over the river Saffrany there is a bridge four hundred cubits long, and five hundred high, conſiſting of one ſingle arch, which extends from a mountain on one ſhore, to a mountain on the oppoſite. The triumphal arches of China, built to perpetuate the memory of their emperors and great men, are ſuperb and beautiful; and their pagodas, or towers, are very magnificent, particularly the Porcelain tower at Nanking, which is two hundred feet high, and forty in diameter.

S. Are there any antiquities in China?

M. Several; but what deſerves particular notice is the celebrated wall built by Tſin Chihoang, 221 years before Chriſt, to ſeparate China from Tartary, and defend it from the incurſions of the wandering inhabitants of that country. It is carried over mountains and valleys for fifteen hundred miles; is from twenty to twenty-five feet high, and ſtrengthened by ſeveral forts. In moſt places it is built of brick and mortar, ſo hardened by time, that a very ſmall part of it is yet fallen to decay. The top, which is wide enough for ſix horſemen to travel abreaſt, is terraſſed and caſed with brick.

8. *Conſtitution, Government, Revenues, and Language.*

S. What is the conſtitution and government of China?

M. Before the conqueſt of that nation by the Tartars the government was patriarchal; duty and obedience to each father of a family being enforced under the ſevereſt penalties

nalties, and the emperor was conſidered as the father of all his people. The mandarines, or great officers of ſtate, were acknowledged as his ſubſtitutes. Degrees of ſubmiſſion due from an inferior to a ſuperior were ſettled, and are obſerved with a moſt tireſome preciſion by the Chineſe to this day. The mandarines might, in a ſubmiſſive manner, remonſtrate to the emperor if there were any errors in his government, and the moſt happy conſequence often enſued.

At preſent their government is compoſed of ſome of their ancient laws, and others impoſed upon them by the Tartars. No nation is better provided with magiſtrates for the adminiſtration of juſtice, both in civil and criminal matters; but they are often rendered ineffectual through corruption, and want of public virtue in the execution.

S. Are the revenues of China conſiderable?

M. They amount to about ſixty millions ſterling annually.

S. What is the language of China?

M. Peculiar to itſelf, and conſiſts of a very few ſyllables, which admit of an infinite number of variations and ſounds.

9. *Religion.*

S. What religion do the Chineſe profeſs?

M. There is in China no religion regularly eſtabliſhed by the ſtate: the emperor is of one faith, many of the mandarines of another, and the common people of a third, which is that of Fo. They are addicted to a variety of ſuperſtitions.

10. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What light does hiſtory give concerning China?

M. Very little; their government, as I have already obſerved, always taught them profound obedience, but the ill conduct of their emperors often obliged them to take up arms, and the people inviting the Tartars to their aſſiſtance, from auxiliaries, they became invaders; and about the year 1644, Iſongate, a prince of the Manchew Tartars, took poſſeſſion of the throne of China, and incorporated his

hereditary ſubjects with the Chineſe, making them, as much as lay in his power, one people.

DIALOGUE XXVII.

India in general.

S. WHAT part of the earth is comprehended under the name of India?

M. A large tract of country, comprehended between 1 and 40 deg. of north latitude, and between 66 and 109 deg. of eaſt longitude.

S. What are the boundaries of India?

M. It is bounded on the north by Tibet and Uſbec Tartary; on the ſouth by the Indian ocean; on the eaſt by the empire and ſea of China; and on the weſt by Perſia and the Indian ſea.

S. How is this large country divided?

M. Different geographers have laid down different diviſions; but it is generally divided into three parts. The peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, or, as it is often called, the Farther Peninſula; the main land, or empire of the great Mogul; and the Peninſula within, or on this ſide the Ganges.

S. Are theſe diviſions large and full of people?

M. They are. Each of them has large and extended dominions, and all of them are very full of people.

S. Can you tell the number the whole contains?

M. No. The taſk is of too arduous a nature ever to be executed; but according to the computations of ſeveral authentic hiſtorians, the number (in the above three diviſions) cannot be leſs than two hundred millions.

S. What religion is eſtabliſhed in India?

M. In the European ſettlements Chriſtianity is profeſſed; but the original inhabitants are Pagans; and the Moors, Mahometans. There are alſo great numbers of Jews ſcattered through every part of India; ſo that all the known religions may be ſaid to be eſtabliſhed here.

S. I ſhall be glad of a ſhort account of the original inhabitants and their religion.

M. They

M. They are called Gentoos, or Hindoos. They are of a ſwarthy complexion, their hair long, and their features regular. With regard to their religion, it is now degenerated into the rankeſt idolatry; but was originally free from theſe abſurdities. They pretend that Brama, at once their legiſlator and the founder of their religion, was inferior to God only; and that he exiſted many thouſand years before our account of the creation. His doctrine conſiſted in the belief of a ſupreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, ſome ſuperior, and ſome inferior to man; and in the doctrines of rewards and puniſhments in a future ſtate of exiſtence. But they were not to be tranſported either to a place of happineſs or torment; their ſouls were to tranſmigrate into other bodies, according to the lives they had lived. The Bramins, or Gentoo prieſts, pretend that Brama bequeathed to them a book called the Vedam, in which all his doctrines and inſtitutions were written; and that they have ſtill a commentary on it called Shahſtah, in the antient Sanſcrit language.

S. What are the Mahrattas?

M. One of the Indian tribes, (for the Gentoos are divided into different tribes) and inhabit the mountains between Hindooſtan and Perſia. They are all mercenaries, ſerve on horſeback, and have been ſo ſucceſsful againſt the Mahometans, that ſome years ſince they placed one of their own tribe on the throne of the great Mogul.

DIALOGUE XXVIII.

The Peninſula of India, beyond the Ganges, or the Farther Peninſula.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of the Farther Peninſula of India?

M. It is ſituated between 1 and 30 deg. of north latitude; and between 92 and 109 of eaſt longitude; being about 2000 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth.

S. What are its boundaries?

M. It is bounded on the north by Tibet and China; on the ſouth by the ſea of China and the ſtreights of Malacca;

on the eaſt by the empire and ſea of China; and on the weſt by the Hither India and the bay of Bengal.

S. What are its diviſions?

M. It has four principal diviſions, which have their names from the parts of the compaſs towards which they are ſituated. Theſe are again ſubdivided into provinces. But the following table will ſufficiently explain every thing relative to its diviſions and ſubdiviſions, and ſhew the chief towns in each province.

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
On the north weſt	Acham,	Chamdara.
	Ava.	Ava.
	Aracan,	Aracan.
On the ſouth weſt	Pegu,	Pegu.
	Martaban,	Martaban.
	Siam.	Siam.
	Malacca,	Malacca.
On the north eaſt	Tonquin,	Cachao, or Keccio.
	Laos,	Lanchang.
On the ſouth eaſt	Cochin China,	Thoanoa.
	Cambodia.	Cambodia.
	Chiampa,	Padram.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of this part of India ſalutary?

M. In ſome parts it is exceedingly ſo, and in others quite the contrary: ſome places are hot and dry, and others hot and moiſt; the latter are by far the moſt pernicious. The winds, termed by the natives, monſoons, prevail in this country: from September to April they blow from the north-eaſt; and from April to September again from the ſouth-weſt. They alter about the time of the equinoxes, when the coaſt is rendered ſo ſtormy as to prove the deſtruction of moſt ſhips which are unfortunate enough to remain upon it.

S. Is the ſoil fruitful?

M. In general it is exceedingly ſo; but like all other countries, ſome parts of it are barren and uncultivated.

2. *Rivers and Bays.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers in this part of India.

M. The Sampoo or Burrampooter, the Menan, the Mecon, the Ava, and the Domea.

S. Are there any bays?

M. Yes; thoſe of Cochin China, Siam, and Bengal.

3. *Mountains and Mines.*

S. Are there any mountains on this peninſula?

M. There are; they run from north to ſouth, almoſt the whole length of the country.

S. Is it rich in mines?

M. Yes; particularly in thoſe of gold, and the moſt precious ſtones, viz. diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethiſts, &c. Several ſorts of the ignoble metals are alſo found there.

4. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are there in this part of India?

M. Elephants, in vaſt numbers; lions; tygers; buffaloes; and moſt ſorts of wild beaſts; horſes; oxen; monkies; and great plenty of fiſh, fowl, and game. This part of the globe is alſo terribly infeſted with noxious animals and inſects, viz. ſerpents, ſcorpions, muſketoes, and locuſts.

S. Is the ſoil fruitful in vegetable productions?

M. Yes: it produces large quantities of wheat, rice, pepper, and ſeveral ſorts of garden ſtuff. Their principal fruit-trees are the cocoa, palm, tamarind, guava, mango plantain orange, lemon and pomegranate. The pine apples and melons of this country are exquiſite.

5. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. In what does the commerce of this peninſula conſiſt?

M. In ſilks, lacquered ware, canes, rattans, ſapan-wood, gum benjamin, long-pepper, ſugar-candy, and ſeveral ſorts of drugs.

S. What are their principal manufactures?

M. Silks, lacquered ware, chintzes, embroidered muſlins, and fillegree work in gold, ſilver, ivory, &c.

6. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What ſort of people are the inhabitants?

M. They are of a good ſtature and a tawny olive complexion. Both men and women have broad faces, with high cheek bones, dark ſmall eyes, hollow jaws, large mouths round ſhort noſes, thick pale lips, teeth dyed black, and large ears. They are excellent mechanics, and very fair traders.

S. Have they any particular cuſtoms?

M. Polygamy is practiſed here, and indeed all over Hindooſtan. They are exceedingly fond of ſhew, and often make an appearance beyond what they can afford. Their food is in general very loathſome, conſiſting of dogs, rats, mice, ſerpents, and ſtinking fiſh. They believe in a future ſtate; therefore, when their kings are interred they bury ſuch animals, and veſſels of gold and ſilver with them, as they ſuppoſe may be of uſe to them in the next world.

S. Have they any peculiar diverſions?

M. No: they chiefly conſiſt in fiſhing, hunting, celebrating of feſtivals, and acting comedies by torch light.

7. *Government, Religion, and Language.*

S. What is the form of government in this part of India?

M. In order to anſwer this queſtion properly, I muſt acquaint you with the names of the principal kingdoms ſituated on this peninſula, which are the following, Azem; Tipra; Arracan; Pegu; Ava; Laos, or Lahos; Siam; the peninſula of Malacca, which contains ſeveral kingdoms or provinces; Cambodia, or Camboja; Champa; Cochin China, and Tonquin. Each of theſe kingdoms are governed by one, and ſometimes more, kings, or princes, who exerciſe the moſt deſpotic power over their ſubjects.

S. What religion do the inhabitants profeſs?

M. Idolatry in general, but their ſuperſtitions are too numerous to be deſcribed.

S. What language do they ſpeak?

M. Chiefly Malayan, mixed with other dialects.

DIA-

DIALOGUE XXIX.

India within the Ganges, or the Empire of the Great Mogul.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of the great Mogul's empire?

M. It lies between 7 and 40 degrees of north latitude; and between 66 and 92 degrees of eaſt longitude; being about 2000 miles in length, and 1500 in breadth.

S. What are its boundaries?

M. It is bounded on the north by Tibet and Uſbec Tartary; on the ſouth by the Indian ocean; on the eaſt by Tibet and the bay of Bengal; and on the weſt by Perſia, and the Indian ocean.

S. Is not this country called Hindooſtan?

M. It is; but ſome writers have included the Farther Peninſula alſo in that name; ſo that, according to them, the empire of Hindooſtan includes both the territories of the great Mogul, and the peninſula of India beyond the Ganges; but the name is now generally confined to the country of which I have mentioned the boundaries.

S. What are the diviſions of the Mogul's empire?

M. It is divided into three principal parts, and each of theſe ſubdivided into provinces, as in the following table.

Diviſions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*	
The north eaſt diviſion of India, containing the provinces of Bengal, on the mouths of the Ganges, and thoſe of the mountains of Naugracut.	Bengal Proper,	Calcutta.	
		F. William.	Engliſh.
		Huegly.	Engliſh.
		Dacca.	Engliſh.
		Malda,	Engliſh and Dutch.
		Chatigan.	
		Caſſumbazar.	
	Naugracut,	Naugracut.	
	Jeſuat,	Rajapour.	
	Patna,	Patna.	
	Necbal,	Necbal.	
	Gore,	Gore.	
	Rotas,	Rotas.	

Diviſions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*
The north weſt diviſion on the frontiers of Perſia, and on the river Indus.	Soret,	Jaganel.
	Jeſſelmere,	Jeſſelmere.
	Tata, or Sinda,	Tata.
	Bucknor,	Bucknor.
	Moultan,	Moultan.
	Haican,	Haican.
	Cabul,	Cabul.
The middle diviſion.	Candiſh,	Medipour.
	Berar,	Berar.
	Chitor,	Chitor.
	Ratipor,	Ratipor.
	Narvar,	Narvar.
	Gualcor,	Gualcor.
	Agra,	Agra.
	Delhi,	Delhi.
	Lahor, or Pencah,	Lahor.
	Hendowns,	Hendowns.
	Caſhmere,	Caſhmere.
	Jengapour,	Jengapour.
	Aſmer, or Bando,	Aſmer.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air in this part of India ſalutary?

M. The northern and midland provinces enjoy a fine, ſerene and temperate air; but thoſe in the ſouth are parched with heat ſeveral months in the year, particularly in April and May, when the hot winds, which come over a tract of burning ſands for ſeveral hundred miles, blow for two or three hours in a morning. About noon the wind changes to the oppoſite direction, and the country is refreſhed with cooling breezes from the ſea; thus the wind alters every twelve hours, blowing off the land from midnight till almoſt noon, and the other twelve hours from the ſea.

S. Is the ſoil fertile?

M. Much the ſame as that of the Farther Peninſula, and the ſame may be obſerved of the animal and vegetable productions.

2. *Mountains, Rivers, and Bays.*

S. Are there any remarkable mountains in this part of India?

M. The principal are thoſe of Caucaſus, which divide India from Uſbec Tartary; thoſe of Naugracut, which divide India from the Tartars of Tibet; and thoſe of Balegaut, which run almoſt the whole length of India.

S. What are the names of the principal rivers?

M. The Indus; the Ganges; the Jemmina; the Guenga, and the Chriſtina.

S. Are there any bays?

M. The principal is that of Bengal.

3. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What ſort of people are the inhabitants?

M. In the north of India, where the Moors or Monguls chiefly reſide, the people are white; towards the ſouth, they are quite black; on the coaſt they are of a tawny or olive complexion; and there is a mixed breed of all theſe compounded together. They are exceedingly ingenious, hoſpitable, benevolent, inoffenſive, and cautious of behaving with the leaſt rudeneſs.

S. What peculiar cuſtoms have they?

M. The parents betroth their children while extremely young, and when the parties arrive at a proper age the marriage is ſolemnized with great ſplendor. A man cannot refuſe the wife his parents have choſen for him, but he may marry another, and have as many concubines as he can maintain; and ſhould his firſt wife murmur at ſuch treatment, he has the power of reducing her to a ſtate of ſervitude. Their method of ſaluting their friends, is by lifting their right hand, and ſometimes both hands to their heads; to a ſuperior they bow almoſt to the ground, and to a prince they fall down upon their faces. On a viſit, the perſon viſited does not riſe to receive his gueſt, but intreats him to ſit down by him on the carpet, and the betel and arek-nut is brought him to chew. They are very reſerved, and ſeldom talk loud or very faſt.

S. Have they any diverſions?

M. They are fond of hunting, hawking, fiſhing, and other rural ſports; and the court is ſometimes entertained with the fights of elephants, lions, and other wild beaſts. They play at cheſs and cards, and at feſtivals dancing girls are ſent for, who are paid for diverting the company.

4. *Manufactures and Commerce.*

S. What are the manufactures of this part of India?

M. Principally muſlins, calicoes, and ſilks.

S. In what does their commerce conſiſt?

M. In the before mentioned articles, to which may be added, ſalt-petre, diamonds, &c. The inhabitants of the weſtern parts of this empire carry on a vaſt traffic to Mecca, in Arabia, where they are met by Abyſſinian, Egyptian, and other merchants, who purchaſe their cargoes with gold and ſilver; ſo that a Mahometan junk or veſſel returning from this voyage, is often worth two hundred thouſand pounds.

5. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What are the principal hiſtorical events of India?

M. The emperors of Hindooſtan are very emulous of tracing their deſcent from Tamerlane, and always pretend to reign in right of him. But Aurengzebe, who mounted the throne in 1667, is generally conſidered as the real founder and legiſlator of the empire. He lived till the year 1707, and in 1713 the crown was diſputed by four of his grandſons, which was at length obtained by Jehander Shah; but the omrahs or great men, having conſpired againſt him, they raiſed one of his nephews to the throne, who immediately beheaded his uncle. The new emperor was at firſt entirely governed by two of his favourites, but finding they abuſed his confidence, he reſolved to put them to death; which they prevented, by firſt dethroning and then ſtrangling him. Theſe powerful enemies were two brothers named Seyd, who now advanced another grandſon of Aurengzebe's to the throne; but, diſapproving his meaſures, they ſtrangled him, and gave the crown to an elder brother of his, who took upon him the title of Shah Jehan. He died in 1719, and was ſucceeded by Mohammed Shah, who put an end to the power of the Seyds.

Kouli

Kouli Khan having invaded Hindooſtan, took the emperor priſoner, and obliged him to cede the north-weſt provinces of India to the crown of Perſia before he would grant him his liberty. Since that time the empire of Hindooſtan has undergone a variety of revolutions, and is now in a great degree diſmembered and ſubject to nabobs and other powers who are either wholly or very nearly independent of the emperor.

I ſhall now give you the diviſions, provinces, and chief towns of the peninſula within the Ganges, acquainting you firſt, in order to avoid tautology, that the air, ſoil, and other articles are the ſame as in thoſe parts of India I have already deſcribed.

The PENINSULA *within the* GANGES.

Diviſions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*
The ſouth-eaſt coaſt of India, ſituate on the bay of Bengal, uſually called the coaſt of Coromandel,	Madura,	Madura,
	Tanjore,	Tanjore,
		Tranquebar, Danes.
	Eaſt ſide of Biſnagar, or Carnate,	Negapatam, Engliſh.
		Biſnagar,
		Portanova, Dutch.
		Fort St David, Engliſh.
		Pondicherry, Conymere, French.
		Coblon,
		Sadraſapatan, Dutch.
		St. Thomas, Portugueſe.
		Fort St. George, or Madraſs, Engliſh.
		Pelicate, Dutch.
	Golconda,	Golconda,
		Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines.
		Maſulipatam, Engliſh and Dutch.
		Vizigapatam, Engliſh.
		Bimlipatan, Dutch.
	Oriſſa,	Cattack,
		Ballaſore, Engliſh.

Divisions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*
The south-west coast of India usually called the coast of Malabar.	West side of Bisnagar, or Carnate,	Tegapatan, Dutch.
		Angengo, English.
		Cochin. Dutch.
		Callicut, Tillicherry, } English.
		Canannore, Dutch.
		Mangalore, Barcelore. } Dutch and Portuguese.
	Decan, or Visiapour,	Raalconda, diamond min.
		Cawar, English.
		Goa, Portuguese.
		Rajapore, French.
		Dabal, English.
		Dundee, Shoule, } Portuguese.
		Bombay, isle and town, English.
	Cambaya, or Guzarat,	Bassaim, Salsette, } Portuguese.
		Damon, Portuguese.
		Surat,
		Swalley,
		Barak. English and Dutch.
		Amedabad,
		Cambaya,
		Diu, Portuguese.

DIALOGUE XXX.

Persia.

S. WHAT is the situation of Persia?

M. It lies between 25 and 44 deg. of north latitude; and between 44 and 70 east longitude: being about 1300 miles in length, and 1100 in breadth.

S. What are the boundaries of the Persian empire?

M. It is bounded on the north by the Caspian sea, on the

the north-weſt by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghiſtan; on the north-eaſt by the river Oxus; on the eaſt by India; on the ſouth by the gulphs of Perſia and Ormus; and on the weſt by Arabia and Turkey.

S. Is the Perſian empire the ſame as it was formerly?

M. It is not Modern Perſia comprehends the ancient Hyrcania, Bactria, Suſiana, Parthia, Media, and part of Aſſyria Iberia, and Colchis.

S. What are the modern diviſions of Perſia?

M. They are very uncertain; but, according to the beſt writers, they are as in the following table.

Diviſions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*
The eaſtern diviſion on the frontiers of India.	Choraſſan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Eſterabad and Herat,	Meſched, or Thus.
		Eſterabad.
		Herat.
	Subluſtian, including Candahar, and the ancient Bactria,	Gazna.
		Candahar.
	Sigiſtan, the ancient Drangiana,	Sigiſtan.
The ſouthern diviſion.	Makeran,	Makeran.
	Kerman the ancient Gedroſſia.	Lar.
		Gombroon.
	Farſiſtan the ancient Perſia,	Ormus.
		Schiras.
The ſouth-weſt diviſion on the frontiers of Tartary.	Chuſiſtan the ancient Suſiana,	Schouſter.
		Caſbin.
	Irac Agemi, the ancient Parthia,	Iſpahan.
		Hamadam.
		New Julpha.
	Curdeſtan, part of the ancient Aſſyria,	Arnova.
		Courmebad.
The north-weſt diviſion between the Caſpian ſea and the frontiers of Turkey.	Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media,	Taurus, or Ecbatana.
	Georgia, Gangea, Dagiſtan, Part of the ancient Iberia, and Colchis,	Ardevil.
		Naxivan.
		Teflis.
	Mazanderan,	Gangea.

Diviſions,

Diviſions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*
The north weſt diviſion between the Caſpian ſea and the frontiers of Turkey.	Gilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, on the Caſpian ſea,	Terki.
		Ferrabat.
		Gilan.
	Chirvan,	Reſcod.
		Derbent.
		Baku.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. What is the air of Perſia?

M. In thoſe parts bordering upon the mountains, which are uſually covered with ſnow, it is very cold. In the midland provinces the air is naturally ſerene, pure and exhilarating; but the extreme heat from the ſouthern provinces often communicates noxious blaſts to the midland parts, which prove mortal to the inhabitants.

S. Is the ſoil good?

M. It varies as much as the air, being in ſome parts exceedingly barren, and in others very fruitful, eſpecially where they can turn the ſtreams of water into the plains and valleys.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. Are there any animals peculiar to Perſia?

M. None; but they have moſt kinds in common with thoſe parts of the world. Their ſheep are remarkable for having ſix or ſeven horns each, and their tails weigh ſeven or eight pounds. The Perſian horſes are eſteemed equal to thoſe of Arabia.

S. What are the productions of that kingdom?

M. Some corn, but not in any large quantities: exceeding fine flowers, delicious fruits, eſpecially oranges, dates, melons, piſtachio nuts: alſo cucumbers, and every kind of garden-ſtuff. The moſt valuable drugs. Oil and wine in great plenty. Silk; and formerly the Gulph of Baſſora furniſhed great part of Europe and Aſia with very beautiful pearls.

3. *Mountains,*

3. *Mountains, Mines, and Rivers.*

S. Is Perſia famous for any remarkable mountains?

M. Several, particularly thoſe of Caucaſus and Ararat, ſometimes called the mountains of Daghiſtan; and Taurus, which is a vaſt collection of mountains, whoſe diviſions run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

S. Have any mines been diſcovered in that kingdom?

M. Yes, of iron, copper, lead, ſalt, and different kinds of marble. But the moſt valuable mines of Perſia, are thoſe which contain the turquoiſe ſtones.

S. What rivers are there in Perſia?

M. There are very few, but the moſt remarkable are the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes. The Indus runs on the eaſt, as the Euphrates and Tigris do on the weſt of Perſia. Water in general is exceedingly ſcarce in that kingdom, and the inhabitants are obliged to collect all they can in reſervoirs, &c. to ſupply their uſes.

4. *Manufactures and Commerce.*

S. What are the manufactures of Perſia?

M. Silk, woollen, mohair, camblets, carpets, leather, embroidery, and gold and ſilver lace.

S. Do the inhabitants carry on any foreign trade?

M. Yes, but entirely by the means of European ſhips, having few of their own. Their commerce is now almoſt ruined by the perpetual wars they have been engaged in; but formerly a very rich and profitable trade was carried on between Gombroon and Surat in the Eaſt Indies.

5. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What ſort of people are the Perſians?

M. Both ſexes are in general handſome; but the complexions of thoſe of the ſouthern parts are inclinable to be ſwarthy. They have been always eſteemed a great people, of prodigious vivacity, quick parts, and very hoſpitable. They are extremely jealous, fond of rich cloaths, a number of ſervants, and other marks of profuſeneſs and vanity. Their favourite

favourite diverſions are hunting, hawking, riding, and the exerciſe of arms. At their feſtivals they are entertained with muſick both vocal and inſtrumental, and the dancing girls. They drink wine in private, it being forbidden by their law, and chew great quantities of opium.

6. *Curioſities, natural and artificial.*

S. Are there any curioſities to be found in Perſia?

M. The baths near Gombroon have always been eſteemed among the natural curioſities of that kingdom; but the principal curioſity is a combuſtible ground about ten miles diſtant from Baku, where the followers of Zoroaſter, who are ſtiled Guebres, or Gaurs, perform their devotions. It is impregnated with the moſt amazing inflammatory qualities, and round it are ſeveral ſmall old temples. In one of theſe the Guebres ſhew you a large hollow cane ſtuck in the ground, out of which iſſues a flame, reſembling that of a lamp filled with very pure ſpirits, and this they pretend is the ſacred flame of univerſal fire.

S. Are there any antiquities?

M. The ruins of many ancient buildings are ſtill to be ſeen, among which are thoſe of the famous palace of Perſepolis. The tombs of the kings of Perſia are cut out of a ſolid rock, and highly ornamented with ſculpture. A modern edifice, worthy of note, is to be ſeen at Iſpahan. This is a pillar ſixty feet high, erected by Shah Abbas, after the ſuppreſſion of a rebellion, and conſiſts of the ſkulls of beaſts. He had taken an oath to build ſuch a column of human ſkulls, but, upon the ſubmiſſion of the rebels, he ſubſtituted thoſe of brutes, obliging each of the rebels to furniſh one.

7. *Religion, Learning, and Language.*

S. What religion do the Perſians profeſs?

M. They are Mahometans, but of a different ſect from the Turks.

S. Does learning flouriſh in that kingdom?

M. It is now at a very low ebb, though once famous both for learning and learned men.

S. What is the language of Perſia?

M. The

M. The pure Perſic is ſaid to be ſpoken in the ſouthern parts of the kingdom, on the coaſts of the Perſian gulph, and in Iſpahan; but many of the provinces ſpeak a barbarous mixture of the Turkiſh, Ruſſian, and other languages.

8. *Conſtitution, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution and government of Perſia?

M. Entirely deſpotic; and in every tranſaction the king's will is law to the people.

S. What do the revenues of that kingdom amount to annually?

M. It is impoſſible to aſcertain; but they muſt be very conſiderable, as the king claims one-third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his ſubjects, and likewiſe a third of ſilk and cotton.

9. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. Does hiſtory give us any ſatisfactory account of Perſia?

M. Cyrus laid the foundation of the Perſian empire about 556 years before Chriſt, and it remained in a flouriſhing ſtate, for 227 years, when Alexander ſubdued Darius its king, and divided the Perſian dominions among his generals. The Romans afterwards attempted, but never could entirely ſubdue Perſia. Tamerlane, however, accompliſhed the arduous taſk, and his poſterity filled that throne till they were driven thence by Cheki Adir. the firſt of the Sophi family. But his ſucceſſors were in general ſuch an abandoned race that the people revolted againſt them, and about the year 1694, Eſref, a Perſian general, aſcended the throne. Some time after Tahmas, a prince of the houſe of Sophi. being aſſiſted by Nadir Shah, defeated the uſurper, and got poſſeſſion of the crown. Nadir, on a pretence that his ſervices were not ſufficiently rewarded, rebelled againſt his ſovereign, and having put him to death, aſcended the throne himſelf, by the title of Shah Nadir, he was undoubtedly a great warrior, dethroned the Mogul, and brought the treaſures of the Indies to Perſia; but of a moſt cruel diſpoſition, which at length became ſo intolerable,

intolerable, that in the year 1747, his relations and principal officers aſſaſſinated him in his tent. After his death a number of competitors laid claim to the crown, which occaſioned a horrid ſcene of blood and devaſtation till 1763, when Kerim Khan, one of Nadir's officers, was placed on the throne. He transferred the ſeat of government from Iſpahan to Schiras, and refuſed the title of Shah, or king, being contented with that of Protector of Perſia. He was beloved by his ſubjects, and revered by foreign powers. After his death in 1779, new competitors for the throne ſprung up, and have almoſt ever ſince continued to ſpread ſlaughter and devaſtation over this unhappy country.

DIALOGUE XXXI.

Arabia.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Arabia?

M. It lies between 12 and 30 degrees of north latitude, and between 35 and 60 degrees of eaſt longitude; being about 1300 miles in length, and 1200 in breadth.

S. What are the boundaries of Arabia?

M. It is bounded on the north by Turkey; on the ſouth by the Indian ocean; on the eaſt by Perſia and the gulphs of Baſſora and Ormus; and on the weſt by the Red-ſea.

S. How is Arabia divided?

M. It is divided into three parts, Arabia Petræa, or the ſtony; Arabia Deſerta, or the deſart; and Arabia Felix or the happy. Theſe principal parts are ſubdivided as in the following table.

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Arabia Petræa.		Suez.
Arabia Deſerta.	Haggiaz, or Mecca,	Mecca.
		Siden.
		Medina.
	Tehama,	Dhafar,
Arabia Felix.	Mocho,	Mocha.
		Sibit.
	Hadramut,	Hadramut.

Diviſions

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Arabia Felix.	Caſſeen,	Caſſeen.
	Segur,	Segur.
	Oman, or Muſcat,	Muſcat.
	Jamama,	Jamama.
	Bahara,	Elcalf.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Arabia temperate?

M. It is in general exceſſively hot, and in moſt places very unſalutary, being ſubject to hot, poiſonous blaſts, which often prove fatal to the inhabitants. This country is never refreſhed with rain, except at the time of the equinoxes, when a few ſhowers fall.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. In general very ſandy, and in ſome parts there are ſuch vaſt tracts of ſand, that, when ſet in motion by the wind, they ſuddenly roll together, forming huge mountains, which have been known to deſtroy whole caravans, that were unfortunate enough to be croſſing the deſerts when the hurricanes happened.

2. *Mountains, Mines, and Rivers.*

S. Are there any mountains in Arabia?

M. The moſt remarkable are thoſe called Gibel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, and thoſe of Sinai and Horeb in Arabia Petræa.

S. What mines are there in that country?

M. Thoſe of gold, ſilver, diamonds, rubies, and ſardonyxes of exquiſite beauty and colour.

S. Are there any rivers?

M. None except the Euphrates, nor are there many ſprings, though the country is almoſt ſurrounded by ſeas.

3. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are there in Arabia?

M. Such as are common to that part of the world, and which I have already mentioned. Arabia boaſts a breed of

of exceeding fine horſes, fit only for the ſaddle. But the moſt uſeful animals to the inhabitants are their camels and dromedaries, which they employ for carrying their merchandize from one part of the country to another. Theſe creatures are formed by nature for travelling over the ſandy deſerts of Arabia, where water is ſeldom to be found; they are often ſeven or eight days without drinking, in which ſituation a horſe muſt inevitably die with drought.

S. Does the ſoil produce any vegetables?

M. In the ſouthern parts of Arabia, ſtiled the happy, the lands are cultivated about the towns near the ſea-coaſt, and produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, caſſia, frankincenſe ſpikenard, cinnamon, pepper, cardamums, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, dates, and coffee. There is alſo honey and wax in great plenty, but very little corn or wine.

4. *Curioſities.*

S. Are there any curioſities in Arabia?

M. The moſque at Mecca, the birth place of Mahomet, and that at Medina, where he was buried, are deſervedly eſteemed as ſuch. The roof of the former, which is very lofty, and covered with gold, riſes in form of a dome, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture. It has a hundred gates, with a window over each, and the inſide of the building is ornamented with the moſt beautiful tapeſtry and gilding. The moſque at Medina is ſupported by four hundred pillars, and furniſhed with three hundred ſilver lamps, which are continually burning. Under a canopy of ſilver tiſſue, which is new every year, is placed the coffin of Mahomet covered with cloth of gold, and over the foot of it is a rich golden creſcent, ſo ingeniouſly wrought, and adorned with precious ſtones, that it is eſteemed a maſter-piece of its kind. To both theſe moſques great numbers of pilgrims reſort yearly, but more particularly to the former; every Muſſulman being obliged to make this pilgrimage once in his life, or at leaſt to ſend a deputy.

5. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What ſort of people are the Arabs?

M. Of a middle ſtature, thin and of a ſwarthy complexion, with black hair and eyes. They are brave, but thieves by nature, both by land and ſea; plundering the caravans which are obliged to paſs the deſerts, and making prize of every veſſel they can maſter. Since they have arrived at the knowledge of fire arms, they have become exceeding good markſmen, and are very expert at the bow and lance.

S. What are their peculiar cuſtoms?

M. In the inland country the Emirs, or princes, of the ſeveral tribes, live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds, for the conveniency of water and paſture. The chief food of the Arabs is rice, and moſt kinds of fiſh and fleſh; but they prefer that of the camel to every other: their drink is generally water or ſherbet, having no ſtrong liquors.

6. *Religion, Language, and Government.*

S. What religion do the Arabs profeſs?

M. Many of thoſe who are wild are ſtill Pagans; but in general they are Mahometans.

S. What language do they ſpeak?

M. Arabic, which the inhabitants of the Eaſt affirm to be the moſt copious language in the world.

S. What is their form of government?

M. The inland parts are governed by petty princes who are all abſolute, and command both the perſons and purſes of their ſubjects; they have no laws but thoſe found in the Koran, and comments upon it. The northern Arabs are under ſubjection to the Turks, and governed by paſhas, who reſide among them; but theſe Arabs receive large gratuities from the Grand Signior for protecting the pilgrims that paſs through Arabia from the robberies of their countrymen.

7. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What are the hiſtorical events of Arabia?

M. The Arabs are deſcended from Iſhmael, the ſon of Hagar; and have ever ſince lived a wandering life with their flocks. Mahomet, founder of the Saracen empire, and of the Mahometan religion, was born in this country in 571. His parents were poor and mean; and he himſelf was for ſome years employed by his uncle, named Abuteleb, as a factor, in which capacity he travelled into Syria, Paleſtine, and Egypt, and, at the age of twenty-eight, married a rich widow of Mecca. He now reſolved to eſtabliſh a new religion, to which his obſervations on the variety of ſects in Paleſtine encouraged him; thinking it would be no difficult taſk to unite them all in the opinions he ſhould point out, and thereby make himſelf at once their high prieſt and ſovereign. He began by leading an auſtere exemplary life for ſome years, when finding he had acquired conſiderable fame for his ſanctity, he ventured to declare himſelf a prophet, ſent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it. As there was nothing in his doctrine but what was flattering to the paſſions of his hearers, he ſoon gained many proſelytes, who increaſing daily, the principal citizens plainly perceived that he had a deſign againſt the government, and reſolved to deſtroy him; but Mahomet receiving timely notice of their intention, fled to Medina. where the inhabitants received him with every demonſtration of joy, acknowledging him for their prince. His doctrines now ſpread throughout Arabia, Syria, Perſia, and Egypt, like an irreſiſtible torrent, and Jews, Gentiles, Arians, &c. readily embraced them. In 627, he was proclaimed king at Medina, and having taken Mecca, and reduced great part of Arabia. and ſome towns of Syria, he died in the year 631, being the ſixty-third of his age. His deſcendants were the caliphs of Perſia, and of Egypt, including Arabia. The former of theſe carried their arms into the Eaſt, and conquered many countries; and the latter, entering Europe, reduced the greater part of Spain, France, Italy, and the iſlands in the Mediterranean.

DIALOGUE XXXII.

The Indian, or Oriental Iſlands.

S. WHAT are the Indian or Oriental iſlands?

M. A great number of iſlands ſcattered in various parts of the Indian ocean, ſome near the continent, and others at a vaſt diſtance from the coaſt.

S. Have they not all of them particular names?

M. Many of them have; but others are diſtinguiſhed only by the general name of the cluſter to which they belong.

S. What are the principal iſlands in the Indian ocean?

M. The principal cluſters of iſlands are thoſe of Japan, the Philippines, the Ladrones, the Moluccas, the Banda, the Andaman, or Nichobar, and the Maldives. The ſingle iſlands are Formoſa, Celebes, or Macaſſer, Borneo, Sumatra, Java, and Ceylon.

S. I ſhould be glad of ſome account of theſe iſlands?

M. I will endeavour to ſatisfy you, by deſcribing them in the conciſeſt manner I can.

Japan Iſlands.

The Japan iſlands are ſituated between the 30th and 41ſt degree of north latitude, and between the 130th and 147th degree of eaſt longitude, and form what is generally called the empire of Japan. The principal iſland is about 600 miles in length, and 120 in breadth. Round this there are two large, and a great number of ſmall iſlands, each of them governed by its own prince, but all ſubject to one emperor, whoſe power, like that of all the eaſtern monarchs, is deſpotic.

S. What is the nature of the air and ſoil of Japan?

M. The air is healthy in almoſt every part of this empire, and the ſoil fruitful. Perhaps the ſoil of almoſt every kingdom would be much more fertile than at preſent, if cultivated with the ſame attention as it is in Japan.

S. What are the principal productions of that country?

M. Corn, rice, a vaſt variety of fruits, timber, &c.

Great

Great numbers of cattle are alſo bred here; and the woods and foreſts are full of game. In the mountains are rich mines of gold, ſilver, fine copper, tin, lead, and iron; alſo quarries of ſlate and marble.

S. Are the iſlands of Japan well peopled?

M. They are; but I can give you no accurate account of their numbers; ſome ſuppoſe they cannot be leſs than nine millions.

S. What is the religion of Japan?

M. The groſſeſt idolatry. The Japaneſe however believe a future ſtate, or rather the metempſychoſis, or tranſmigration of the ſoul.

S. What is the character of the inhabitants?

M. They are remarkable for their ſtrict honeſty and veracity; and for inſtilling the love of theſe, and all other moral virtues, into the minds of their children. The women are celebrated for their extraordinary modeſty, the elegance of their ſhape, and the fineneſs of their complexion.

The Japaneſe are very fond of the liberal ſciences, and accordingly excel all the other oriental nations in theſe ſtudies. The bonzes or prieſts, not only ſtudy philoſophy, mathematics, ethics, theology, &c. but alſo teach the ſciences to youth in their academies, of which they have great numbers.

S. Are there any curioſities in Japan?

M. Yes, ſeveral. There are four volcanoes, one of which is very dreadful; and in the neighbourhood of theſe burning mountains are ſeveral medicinal ſprings. Among the artificial rarities is a famous coloſſus of copper gilt. It is of a prodigious ſize, its thumb being fourteen inches in circumference, and the other parts in proportion.

S. What is the language?

M. Something ſimilar to that of China, but much more grammatical, polite, and copious. They alſo write in characters, but very different from the Chineſe.

Philippine Iſlands.

S. What is the ſituation of the Philippine iſlands?

M. They lie between 5 and 19 degrees of north latitude and

and 114 and 131 degrees of eaſt longitude, about 300 miles S. E. of China.

S. What is the number of theſe iſlands?

M. The exact number is not known; authors generally make them 1200.

S. Are any of them large?

M. Luconia, or Manilla, the principal of theſe iſlands, is about 400 miles long, and 200 broad.

S. Why are they called Philippines?

M. From Philip II. of Spain, during whoſe reign they were conquered by the Spaniards. They were formerly under the government of the emperor of China; but abandoned by him, as too far from his other dominions.

S. What is the nature of the air, ſoil, and productions of theſe iſlands?

M. The air is extremely hot, with very little difference in the ſeaſons; the periodical rains generally begin here in May, and continue three months. The ſoil is equal to any in the world for its richneſs; producing an amazing quantity of cocoa, rice, millet, and vegetables of all kinds known in the torrid zone. Here are large herds of deer, buffaloes, hogs, ſheep and goats. The neſt of the bird Saligan, which diſſolves into a jelly, and is ſo highly coveted by the voluptuous of Europe, is found in moſt of theſe iſlands.

S. What is the character of the inhabitants?

M. No general character can be drawn; becauſe they conſiſt of Chineſe, Malabars, Blacks, Spaniards, Portugueſe, and Mulattos. Some of theſe are cruel, and almoſt ſavage; others mild and affable. Nor has the tyranny of the Spaniſh yoke, rendered the former more civilized than they were before theſe profeſſors of chriſtianity obtained the ſovereignty of the Philippines. On the contrary, moſt of the Blacks, who are conſidered as the aborigines of theſe iſlands, have retired into the mountains, where they ſubſiſt on the ſpontaneous productions of the earth, and carry on eternal war againſt the Spaniards?

S. What religion is eſtabliſhed in theſe iſlands?

M. Mahometiſm, idolatry, and chriſtianity. But idolatry has the greateſt number of votaries.

S. Are there any things remarkable in theſe iſlands?

M. There are ſeveral volcanoes, and a tree called Amet,

which ſupplies the inhabitants with water. There are alſo canes, which, when cut, afford a quantity of pure water ſufficient for a draught. Theſe canes are found plentifully in almoſt every part of theſe iſlands.

S. Do the inhabitants carry on any trade?

M. Yes, a very conſiderable one. They ſend the elegant commodities of Aſia to America, where they exchange them for ſilver. Two large ſhips ſail annually from Manilla to Acapulco, in Mexico, where they diſpoſe of their merchandize, and return loaded with ſilver. It was one of theſe ſhips which commodore Anſon took in the year 1743. In the year 1762, the city of Manilla itſelf was taken by general Draper, and admiral Corniſh.

S. What number of inhabitants are there on theſe iſlands?

M. About 100,000, the greater part of whom pay a capitation tax to the Spaniards.

The Ladrones.

S. What is the ſituation of the Ladrone iſlands?

M. They lie in the Pacific ocean, between 12 and 28 degrees of north latitude; and between 144 and 147 degrees of eaſt longitude.

S. What is their number, and when were they diſcovered?

M. Geographers generally reckon twelve of theſe iſlands; but if the ſmall iſles are reckoned, their number will amount to twenty at leaſt. They were diſcovered by Magellan, in the year 1521.

S. Are they inhabited?

M. They were formerly moſt of them well inhabited, and even at the latter end of the laſt century, the three principal iſlands, called Guam, Rota, and Tinian, are ſaid to have contained above fifty thouſand ſouls: but ſince that time Tinian has been entirely depopulated; and only two or three hundred Indians have been left at Rota, to cultivate rice for the iſland of Guam; ſo that at preſent Guam alone can properly be ſaid to be inhabited. That iſland is the only ſettlement of the Spaniards; it is about 90 miles in circumference, and contains about four thouſand inhabitants.

S. Is there any thing remarkable in theſe iſlands?

M. Nothing,

M. Nothing, except their productions merit that appellation. Here are innumerable herds of cattle, milk-white except their ears, which are generally black. Among the vegetable productions is a fruit peculiar to theſe iſlands, called rima by the Indians, but by us bread-fruit. It grows upon a pretty lofty tree, whoſe leaves are of a full green, deeply ſerrated, and from a foot to eighteen inches in length. The fruit, which grows indifferently on all parts of the branches, is of an oval figure, covered with a rough coat, and about ſeven or eight inches in length. It reſembles an artichoke bottom, both in texture and taſte, being ſoft and ſpongy.

The Moluccas, or Spice-Iſlands.

S. What is the ſituation of the Molucca iſlands?

M. They lie in the Indian ocean, between 50 minutes ſouth, and 2 degrees of north latitude; and in 125 degrees of eaſt longitude.

S. Is their number known?

M. Yes. There are five of them, Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore.

S. What are the products of theſe iſlands?

M. Cloves, mace, and nutmegs in amazing quantities. Neither corn nor rice is produced in theſe iſlands; ſo that the inhabitants ſubſiſt on a ſort of bread made of ſagoe.

S. To whom are theſe iſlands ſubject?

M. To the Dutch. They were firſt poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe; but the Dutch having driven them from the iſlands, became the ſole maſters, and have ever ſince monopolized the whole ſpice trade.

The Banda, or Nutmeg Iſlands.

S. What is the ſituation of the Banda iſlands?

M. They lie in the Indian ocean, between 4 and 5 degrees of ſouth latitude; and between 127 and 128 degrees of eaſt longitude.

S. Who are maſters of theſe iſlands?

M. The Dutch. In the year 1500, the Portugueſe diſcovered theſe iſlands, and carried on a conſiderable trade with the natives for their ſpices, which they ſent into Europe. Before this period the Arabians purchaſed the ſpices, and ſent them, by caravans, over the deſerts to the ſea-

ports of the Levant, whence they were diſtributed to the different markets of Europe.

About the year 1609, the Dutch invaded theſe iſlands, and the natives put themſelves under the protection of the Engliſh. But this was not ſufficient to protect them; the Hollanders conquered both the Indians and their protectors, took poſſeſſion of the iſlands, and excluded all other nations from the ſpice trade.

S. Are theſe iſlands fruitful in ſpices?

M. There are whole foreſts of nutmeg and clove-trees, particularly the former, growing here without any cultivation; ſo that the quantity is immenſe. Beſides theſe ſpices, the iſlands produce plenty of oranges, and other fruits common to this part of the world.

Adaman, or Nicobar Iſlands.

S. What is the ſituation of the Adaman iſlands?

M. They lie at the entrance of the Bay of Bengal, between 7 and 11 degrees of north latitude; and between 93 and 95 degrees of eaſt longitude.

S. Is there any thing remarkable in theſe iſlands?

M. No. They are very fruitful in all the productions of the Torrid Zone, and inhabited by a harmleſs, inoffenſive people, who furniſh refreſhment to ſuch ſhips as touch there.

Maldivia Iſlands.

S. Are the Maldivia iſlands of great extent?

M. They reach from two degrees ſouth, to 7 degrees north latitude; but their breadth is not above 30 leagues. They lie in the Indian ocean, about 50 leagues ſouth-eaſt from Cape Comorin.

S. What is the number of theſe iſlands?

M. Authors are not agreed in that point; but the generality make them about 1000. They are all of them very ſmall, the largeſt not being above a league and a half in circumference.

S. What is the produce of theſe iſlands?

M. Millet, pulſe of various kinds, and cocoa-nuts, the largeſt and fineſt in the world. Here are alſo oranges, citrons, and pomegranates, in great plenty; and tortoiſe-ſhells of amazing bigneſs.

S. Have the inhabitants any trade?

M. A little. They export about 100 ſhip loads of cocoa-nuts, annually; and large quantities of thoſe beautiful ſhells called cowries, which paſs for money in ſeveral parts of India, and among the Negroes of Africa.

S. What is the character of the natives?

M. That of a prudent, ſedate, and courageous people. They apply themſelves to various kinds of manufactures, and excel in moſt. They cultivate the ſciences according to their faſhion, and are particularly fond of aſtronomy.

S. Have they any religion?

M. Yes; the Mahometan; and when one of theſe iſlanders has viſited Mecca, he enjoys the privilege of wearing a long beard in token of ſanctity.

S. What is their language?

M. It is compounded of the Arabic and Malabar languages; their religious offices are wholly in Arabic.

Formoſa.

S. What is the ſituation of Formoſa?

M. It lies betwen 22 and 25 degrees of north latitude; and between 110 and 122 degrees of eaſt longitude; being about 279 miles in length, and 210 in breadth.

S. What are the properties of the air and ſoil?

M. The air is clear and healthy; and though the climate is ſultry in ſummer, the conſtant freſh breezes from the ſea, render it very ſupportable. The ſoil is fruitful in the valleys, and produces a vaſt variety of fruits, with prodigious quantities of rice, ſpices, tea, white ſugar, &c.

S. You mentioned the valleys as being fruitful, are there any remarkable mountains?

M. There are; particularly a long chain of very lofty ones, extending from north to ſouth, which divide the iſland into two parts.

S. Are there any valuable mines?

M. Several of gold and ſilver; but very little worked.

S. What is the character of the inhabitants?

M. I have already obſerved that the iſland is divided into two parts by a ridge of lofty mountains: the inhabitants on the weſtern ſide are Chineſe, and deviate neither from the cuſ-

toms, manners, religion, virtues, nor vices of their brethren on the continent. Thoſe on the eaſtern ſide are groſsly ignorant, but a harmleſs and very inoffenſive people; without even a ſovereign, magiſtracy, or laws. In the year 1782, this iſland was nearly overwhelmed and almoſt totally deſtroyed by a furious hurricane and dreadful inundation of the ſea, ſuppoſed to have been occaſioned by an earthquake.

Celebes, or Macaſſar.

S. What are the dimenſions and ſituation of Celebes?

M. It is of conſiderable extent, lying between 2 degrees north, and ſix degrees ſouth latitude; and between 116 and 124 degrees of eaſt longitude; ſo that it is nearly 576 miles in length, and the ſame in breadth.

S. What are the properties of the air and ſoil?

M. The iſland, from its ſituation under the equinoctial, is ſubject to periodical rains, ſo that the air is both hot and moiſt; but the northern breezes, which generally blow here, mitigate the heat, and render it tolerably healthy. The ſoil is amazingly fruitful, yielding, without culture, all the fruits common to the torrid zone.

S. What are the chief productions of this iſland?

M. Pepper and opium. With theſe they carry on a very conſiderable trade, both with the Chineſe and Dutch. The latter are maſters of the ſea-coaſts of the iſland; but the inland parts are governed by three kings, who are perpetually at war with one another.

S. What is the character of the inhabitants?

M. They are hardy and valiant; ſkilful in deleterious drugs, which abound here, and with which they poiſon their arrows, ſo that the ſlighteſt wound is mortal. But when not provoked, they are hoſpitable and faithful. They live in houſes built on poſts, acceſſible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night, in order to ſecure themſelves againſt the attacks of venomous animals.

Borneo.

S. What are the dimenſions and ſituation of Borneo?

M. Before New Holland was diſcovered to be an iſland, it was generally conſidered as the largeſt iſland in the world. The form of it is circular and about 720 miles in diameter.

diameter. It lies between 7 deg. north, and 3 degrees ſouth latitude; and between 107 and 117 degrees eaſt longitude.

S. What is the nature of the air and ſoil of Borneo?

M. They are both nearly the ſame with that of Celebes above deſcribed; but the inland parts are marſhy and unhealthy; and great part of the inhabitants reſide in towns built on floats at the mouths of the rivers.

S. What is the produce of this iſland?

M. It conſiſts in a great variety of articles, particularly excellent maſtic, and other reſins and gums, wax, rice, caſſia, honey, cotton, the beſt camphire in the world, frankincenſe, muſk, aloes, cinnamon, pepper, and other ſpices; excellent diamonds and gold duſt are found in the ſands of the rivers. Here are alſo mines of iron, tin, and loadſtone.

S. What is the character of the inhabitants?

M. No particular character can be given; becauſe they are compoſed of different nations. The original inhabitants, called Byayos, who inhabit the mountainous parts of the iſland, are very ſavage, and chiefly employed in hunting and feeding their cattle. The Benjareens, or Mahometans, who, with the Chineſe, carry on the greater part of the trade, are an effeminate people, very artful, and no ſtrangers to deceit.

S. Is there any thing remarkable in this iſland?

M. The Orang-Outang, or man of the woods, is a native of Borneo. It is a ſpecies of the monkey, and ſuppoſed to reſemble a man more than any other irrational creature.

Sumatra.

S. Where is the iſland of Sumatra ſituated?

M. In the Indian Ocean, between 6 deg. of north, and 6 deg. of ſouth latitude; and between 93 and 104 deg. of eaſt longitude. It is about 900 miles in length, and from 100 to 150 in breadth. The equator divides it into two parts, nearly equal.

S. What are its chief productions?

M. Almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Borneo; but gold and pepper are the principal commodities. Gold is found in

ſuch plenty in this iſland that ſome have ſuppoſed it to be the Ophir mentioned in ſcripture. The Engliſh Eaſt-India company have two ſettlements here, Bencoolen and Fort Marlborough; and it is from this iſland they import the chief part of their pepper.

S. What is the character and religion of the inhabitants?

M. They are treacherous, barbarous, and deceitful. Some of them are Pagans, but the greater part Mahometans.

Java.

S. Is Java a large iſland?

M. It is: being about 720 miles in length, and 140 in breadth.

S. What is its ſituation?

M. Between the 6th and 8th degree of ſouth latitude; and between 104 and 114 degrees of eaſt longitude.

S. Is there any thing remarkable in this iſland?

M. Yes: it is the ſeat of the Dutch power in India. Their capital is Batavia, ſituated near one of the fineſt harbours in the world. The town is about a league and a half in circumference, furniſhed with five gates, and ſurrounded with regular fortifications. Here the Dutch governor-general of the Indies, reſides in all the pomp of eaſtern magnificence. The ſuburbs, which are large and very populous, are inhabited by perſons from almoſt every nation in the world: the number of Chineſe alone, are computed at near 100,000. In the year 1740, about 33,000 of theſe inoffenſive creatures were maſſacred, without the ſmalleſt offence having been proved againſt them, by the Dutch themſelves; and accordingly, orders were diſpatched from Europe, for trying the governor-general at Batavia, but nothing farther has been heard of it ſince.

S. What are the chief products of Java?

M. Rice, ſugar-canes, coffee, and tobacco, with all the fruits known in the torrid zone. Here are alſo mines of copper, iron, &c.

S. Is there any trade carried on here?

M. Yes; more than at any other of the Indian iſlands. It is the center, and great magazine of the Dutch commerce; and the inhabitants carry on a very conſiderable trade

trade with the other iſlands, and ſeveral parts of the continent.

Ceylon.

S. What are the dimenſions and ſituation of Ceylon?

M. It lies in the Indian ocean, near cape Comorin, the ſouthern promontory of the hither peninſula of India; between 6 and 10 degrees of north latitude; and between 79 and 82 degrees of eaſt longitude: being about 280 miles in length, and about 200 in breadth.

S. What are the products of this iſland?

M. They conſiſt of a great variety of articles; but the principal is cinnamon, the beſt in the world. Beſides this it produces excellent fruits of all kinds known in the torrid-zone, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, ſilk, tobacco, ebony, muſk, cryſtal, ſalt-petre, lead, iron, ſteel, copper, gold, ſilver, and all kinds of precious ſtones, except diamonds. Every part of the iſland is well wooded and watered; the air is healthy, and the ſoil exuberantly fruitful; ſo that the inhabitants, with ſome reaſon, call it the terreſtrial paradiſe. It is allowed to be the richeſt and fineſt iſland in the world, with regard to the gifts of nature. The elephant of Ceylon is preferred to all others, eſpecially if ſpotted.

S. To whom does this rich and beautiful iſland belong?

M. It is governed by a king who reſides in Candy, his capital ſituated near the center of the iſland: but the Dutch, who are ſettled on the ſea-coaſts, are properly the maſters of the iſland*, they have ſhut up the king in his metropolis, and monopolized the whole ſpice-trade to themſelves.

S. How did they obtain this power?

M. Under pretence of aſſiſting the king of Ceylon againſt the Portugueſe, who were maſters of ſeveral towns and forts on the coaſt, they landed an army in Ceylon, diſpoſſeſſed the enemy of their poſts, and fixed themſelves in their fortreſſes.

S. What is the character of the original inhabitants?

* At preſent this iſland is in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, having been taken by them in February 1796.

M. That of a ſober, inoffenſive people, and remarkably tenacious of their ancient laws and cuſtoms.

S. What religion do they profeſs?

M. Idolatry. But there is great reaſon to think they were no ſtrangers to Revelation, long before the Chriſtian æra. In the ſouthern part of the iſland, about 20 leagues from the ſea, there is a very large plain, in the middle of which is a mountain covered with a beautiful turf. On the top of this mountain is a rock of a pyramidical form, and near a quarter of a league in height; but ſo rugged, that it can only be aſcended by the help of an iron chain ſuſpended from the ſummit. The top of this rock, which appears like a point when viewed from the plain at the bottom of the mountain, is a terrace of two hundred paces in diameter, in the middle of which is a large and very deep lake, full of the fineſt water, ſupplied in ſuch quantities, that ſeveral rivulets tumble, in beautiful cataracts, down the ſides of the mountain. On the margin of the lake is a large ſtone, on which is the print of a man's foot eighteen inches in length, and eight in breadth, as perfectly engraved as if it had been taken in wax. This print the inhabitants believe, was made by the foot of Adam, who was created here: that the lake aroſe from the tears ſhed by Eve at Abel's death; and that Ceylon was the garden of Eden, or terreſtrial paradiſe.

S. How was it poſſible for the inhabitants to obtain ſuch notions of the creation?

M. They received the tradition from Vigia Raia, one of their kings, who flouriſhed about 500 years before the Chriſtian æra: but it is not eaſy to determine the ſource from which that prince drew his knowledge. Some have ſuppoſed that this is the Ophir to which Solomon ſent his ſhips for gold; or, at leaſt, that his fleet traded with the inhabitants of the iſland. But however that be, it is certain that the people are firmly perſuaded of the truth of what they aſſert, and frequently make pilgrimages, and carry their offerings to this mountain; where their prieſts, intereſted to ſupport the ſuperſtition of the people, entertain them with fabulous prodigies which they pretend happen there every day. At the ſame time theſe votaries are idolaters, and ſo bigotted to the doctrine of the metempſychoſis, that they


AFRICA
with the Routes of the Modern Travellers
Parke, Browne &
(le Vaillant.)
ATLANTIC OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
RED SEA
ETHIOPIA
NIGRITIA
GUINEA
GULF of GUINEA
BARBARY
BILEDULGEREED
SAHARA or GREAT DESERT of BARBARY
SPAIN
SICILY
NATOLIA
SYRIA
ARABIA
CANARIES
MADEIRAS
Madeira
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
ZAHARA
ZUENZIGA
GOGEN
TERGA
FEZZAN
BORNOU
KAUGA
DARFUR
SENNAAR
NUBIA
ABYSSINIA
ZENDERO
ALABA
MACHIRAS
ADEL
CAFFA
BIAFARA
BENIN
CALABAR
CALLONGOS
ROMBAI
GOOBER
ANZICO
LOANGO
MONOMOTAPA
NIMKAMAT
or Mano emugi
Mountains of the Moon
Lake Maravi
Lake Zambre
Lake Zaire
Lake Aquilunda
Lake Zembre
Lake Dambea
Lake Cilolo
Lake Aquilunda
Lake Maravi
Lake Zambre
Lake Zaire
Lake Aquilunda
Lake Zembre
Lake Dambea
Lake Cilolo
Lake Aquilunda



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they worſhip, during the whole day, the firſt animal they meet in the morning.

But idolatry is not the only religion profeſſed in Ceylon; the king, and the greater part of his court, are Mahometans. and the Dutch have eſtabliſhed Chriſtianity in their diſtricts.

DIALOGUE XXXIII.

Africa in general.

AFRICA is the third grand diviſion of the world, much larger than Europe, but leſs than either America, or Aſia.

S. What are the boundaries of Africa?

M. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea, which divides it from Europe; on the eaſt by the Red Sea, which ſeparates it from Aſia, except a ſmall neck of land, called the iſthmus of Suez; on the weſt by the Atlantic; and on the ſouth, by the Southern Ocean; ſo that it may be properly ſtiled a vaſt peninſula.

S. What is the ſituation of Africa?

M. It lies between 35 degrees of ſouth, and 37 degrees of north latitude; and between 19 degrees weſt, and 50 degrees eaſt longitude. The equator therefore croſſes it almoſt in the middle, and the greater part of it lies in the torrid-zone.

S. Is Africa very populous?

M. Your queſtion cannot be anſwered with the leaſt pretence to accuracy. The inland parts are almoſt wholly unknown; ſo that any computation muſt be founded on fancy only. The ancients were perſuaded that the parts under the torrid-zone were uninhabitable; but this opinion we know is falſe. However, as the ſoil in many parts of theſe burning regions is very ſandy, which reflects the heat of the vertical ſun to an amazing degree, Africa cannot be full of inhabitants. Beſides, here are prodigious tracts of barren ſands, and a dreadful ſcarcity of water, ſo that many of theſe parts cannot be peopled. The merchants who paſs through theſe deſerts feel the terrible effects of this

heat and drought. Sometimes the wind raiſes the ſands in ſuch amazing quantities as to bury whole caravans, and ſuffocate the unfortunate travellers. The ſea-coaſts however, and the banks of the rivers are well inhabited, though not equal to thoſe of Europe or Aſia.

S. What are the principal mountains of Africa?

M. 1. Atlas, a prodigious chain of mountains extending above a thouſand leagues in length, from the weſtern, hence called the Atlantic ocean, to Egypt. 2. The Mountains of the Moon, ſtill higher than thoſe of Atlas, one branch of which, called Poco Franco, extends itſelf a conſiderable way towards the Cape of Good-Hope, and another, called the Mountains of Cryſtal, to the eaſtward of the kingdom of Congo. 3. The Mountains of the Sun, eſteemed the higheſt in all Africa. 4. Thoſe of Sierra Leone, or the Mountains of the Lions, extend as far as Ethiopia, and divide Nigritia from Guinea. The ancients called the latter, the Mountains of God, on account of their being ſo ſubject to ſtorms of thunder and lightning.

S. What are the moſt noted rivers of Africa?

M. The Niger, the Gambia, the Senegal, and the Nile. The laſt overflows its banks at certain ſeaſons of the year, and fertilizes Egypt, through which it directs its courſe. The Niger is ſubject to the ſame increaſe and decreaſe, and like the Nile, ſpreads plenty over the countries adjacent to its banks. The Gambia, and Senegal, are only branches of the Niger, but ſubject to the ſame riſe and fall.

S. Is the trade of Africa conſiderable?

M. If we were to judge from its ſituation only, we ſhould conſider it as the center of the commerce of the whole earth. But, alas, this extenſive country, bleſſed with ſome of the fineſt harbours in the world, noble, large, and deep rivers, penetrating into the very heart of the country, ſtored with inexhauſtible treaſures, and capable of producing every thing neceſſary either with regard to the calls of nature, or the luxuries of mankind, is entirely neglected.

S. Was Africa always in this melancholy ſtate?

M. No. The northern parts, or thoſe waſhed by the Mediterranean Sea, once contained ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates, where the arts and ſciences were cultivated, riches abounded, and the moſt extenſive commerce was carried on.

This

This was the ſeat of the celebrated kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia; and of the wealthy and powerful ſtate of Carthage, once the formidable rival of Rome, and whoſe commerce extended to every part of the then known world; even the ſhores of Britain were viſited by her fleets.

S. What occaſioned this amazing change in the riches and trade of Africa?

M. Ambition and revenge; the two dreadful ſources from whence the greater part of human miſeries flow. Juba, king of Mauritania, but tributary to Carthage, ambitious to free himſelf from the yoke of ſervitude, and furious to revenge ſome affronts he had received, unfortunately for his country, called in the Romans to his aſſiſtance. After a dreadful war which laid the richeſt provinces waſte, Carthage was ſubdued: and afterwards, by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and ſtates. Deprived at once of their liberties and their wealth, the genius of the inhabitants was depreſſed; they cultivated no more land than was neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence; neglected their trade, and ſunk beneath the weight of poverty and oppreſſion. On the fall of the Roman empire, the Vandals overrun the north of Africa, and deſtroyed the ſmall remains of the arts and ſciences, which had eſcaped the tyranny of the Romans; and, to complete the misfortunes of this country, the Saracens, about 200 years after, made a ſudden conqueſt of all the coaſt of Egypt and Barbary. The Turks ſucceeded, and both being of the Mahometan religion, whoſe profeſſors carry deſolation with them, the ruin of this once flouriſhing part of the world was finiſhed.

With regard to the preſent inhabitants in general, they have harbours without ſhipping, merchandize without commerce, and precious metals without riches. The human mind is here ſeen in its loweſt point of debaſement, and hardly ſoars above the inſtinct of the brute creation.

S. What religions are profeſſed in Africa?

M. The Pagan, the Mahometan, and the Chriſtian. The votaries of the firſt are the moſt numerous, poſſeſſing the greater part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good-Hope; theſe are generally black. The Mahometans who are of a tawney complexion, are maſters of Egypt, and all the northern ſhores of Africa, generally called the Barbary coaſt. The inhabitants of Abyſſinia,

Abyſſinia, or Upper Ethiopia, are called Chriſtians, though they retain many Pagan and Jewiſh rites.

S. How is this country divided?

M. Different geographers have made uſe of different diviſions. The following is, I think, the beſt, as it is more eaſy, and ſufficiently exact.

1. The country of the whites; comprehending Egypt, Nubia, Ethiopia, Abyſſinia, and the coaſt of Barbary.

2. The territories inhabited by blacks, comprehending Nigritia, or Negroland, Upper and Lower Guinea.

3. Cafraria, or the land of the Hottentots and other wandering tribes, Zanguebar, and the ſouthern coaſt of the Red-ſea.

4. The iſlands of Africa.

DIALOGUE XXXIV.

Egypt.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Egypt?

M. It lies between 20 and 32 degrees of north latitude: and between 28 and 36 degrees of eaſt longitude.

S. What are its dimenſions and boundaries?

M. It is about 600 miles in length, and 250 in breadth: bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea; on the ſouth by Abyſſinia, or Upper Ethiopia; on the eaſt by the Red-ſea; and on the weſt by the deſerts of Barca.

S. How is Egypt divided?

M. It is generally divided into two principal parts, called the Northern and Southern Diviſions; as in the following table:

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
Northern diviſion,	Lower Egypt,	Grand Cairo.
		Bulac.
		Alexandria.
		Roſetto.
		Damietta.
Southern diviſion.	Upper Egypt,	Sayd, or Thebes.
		Coſſiar.

1. *Air*

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Egypt ſalutary?

M. Quite the contrary; for being ſituated among high rocks and mountains on the eaſt, and the ſandy deſerts of Lybia and Barca on the weſt, the air is exceedingly hot, particularly in the months of April and May, when it is often infectious, and once in ſix or ſeven years the inhabitants are viſited by the plague; but this and every other diſeaſe ceaſes on the overflowing of the Nile.

S. Is the ſoil fertile?

M. No country exceeds it, particularly thoſe parts where the waters of the Nile extend, the land principally conſiſting of the mud which that river leaves behind it, and this is ſo exceedingly rich, that the huſbandman is frequently obliged to temper it with ſand, leſt the corn ſhould be too rank.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are there in Egypt?

M. Fine horſes, camels, dromedaries, a particular large breed of aſſes, black cattle, goats, ſheep, antelopes, hyenas, tygers, apes, ichneumons, and camelions. The crocodile and hippopotamus, or river-horſe, are likewiſe found here, and are both amphibious animals. Egypt abounds in fowls of every kind, among which are eagles, hawks, pelicans, and oſtriches. Among the ſeveral kinds of ſerpents, which inhabit that country, are the cocatrice and the aſp.

S. Does Egypt abound in vegetable productions?

M. Yes; and even without much labour to the inhabitants, who ſow the ſeed in the months of October and May, and, in about ſix weeks after, corn, vegetables, and verdure of every kind, afford a moſt delightful proſpect. They have generally three crops in the year; the firſt of lettuces and cucumbers; the ſecond of corn; and the third of melons. They have every fruit natural to hot climates, viz. oranges, lemons, grapes, figs, olives, dates, plantains, palm-trees, &c.

3. *Rivers and Lakes.*

S. Are there any rivers in Egypt?

M. Only the Nile, which merits a very particular deſcription. This celebrated river riſes near Geeſh, in Abyſſinia, and runs moſtly from ſouth to north for fifteen hundred miles. A little below Cairo, it divides into two branches, which are called the branches of Damietta and Roſetto, one inclining to the eaſt, and the other to the weſt, and falling into the Levant-ſea, a hundred miles diſtant from each other. About the latter end of May the Nile begins to riſe in Egypt, which it continues to do till September or October, when, being arrived at its proper height, the inhabitants make public rejoicings, and the Turkiſh paſha opens the ſluices, by which it is let into the lake or grand canal, with great ceremony. It then decreaſes gradually, leaving behind it the rich mud I have already mentioned, till the next year, when the flood returns.

S. What lakes are there in Egypt?

M. Several, moſt of which are uſeful to the inhabitants, though they ſometimes occaſion very noxious vapours; but the moſt remarkable is the lake Mœris, dug in a valley near Cairo to prevent, as far as poſſible, any inconvenience to the lands from the overflowing of the Nile. The canal, by which the water is conveyed, was cut at a vaſt expence, and from hence it is diſtributed through narrow channels into the fields and gardens all over Egypt.

4. *Curioſities.*

S. Are there any curioſities in Egypt?

M. It abounds in antiquities, and there is no doubt but you have often heard of the pyramids, ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Nile, of which the original uſe is buried in perpetual oblivion. The baſe of the largeſt of theſe aſtoniſhing ſtructures covers eleven acres of ground, and its height, if meaſured perpendicularly, is five hundred feet; but, if meaſured obliquely, from the baſe to the top, it is ſeven hundred feet. Within-ſide, and nearly in the center of the pyramid, is a room thirty-four feet long, and ſeventeen

ſeventeen broad, in which is a marble cheſt ſeven feet in length, ſuppoſed by ſome travellers, to have been the coffin of one of the ancient kings of that country, but it is now empty. The other principal curioſities of Egypt are, the labyrinth, which contained twelve palaces, and a thouſand houſes, ſaid to be all cut out of the rock; the mummy pits, which are vaults of a vaſt extent, and ſo called, becauſe the embalmed bodies, or mummies of the ancient Egyptians, were placed there: Cleopatra's needle, and its ſculptures, eſteemed extremely beautiful: Pompey's pillar; the ſphynx, only the head and ſhoulders of which are now to be ſeen. Many ſuppoſe that it was hewn out of the rock where it now ſtands, and that there was never any more of it; while others think that the hinder parts have been deſtroyed by time and other accidents. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens was firſt found out, and is ſtill practiſed in Egypt; together with the art of making Sal Ammoniac.

5. *Manufactures and Commerce.*

S. What manufactures or commerce do the Egyptians carry on?

M. Very little of any kind: the Turks have a conſul at Cairo for the protection of their traffic there, which chiefly conſiſts of coffee, frankincenſe, gum, drugs, and other merchandize brought from Arabia and the eaſtern countries, which they export to Europe.

6. *Inhabitants, Manners, &c.*

S. What ſort of people are the Egyptians?

M. Thoſe really deſcended from that race, and diſtinguiſhed by the name of Copts, are a very ill-looking, ſlovenly people, extremely ſun-burnt, and immerſed in indolence. But numbers of Turks and Arabs inhabit Egypt, the former are tall, fair, perſonable men; and the latter, a ſwarthy, ſmall limbed people, who, according to their natural cuſtom, live in tents, and remove from one part of the country to another, with their flocks. There is no doubt but the Egyptians were once a handſome race, the famous Cleopatra being of that nation; and

and even now the women, who are not expoſed to the ſun, have good complexions and features.

S. Have they any particular cuſtoms?

M. They are much the ſame as thoſe of the Perſians and the inhabitants of other parts of Aſia. They will not ſuffer a chriſtian to ride upon any other beaſt than an aſs, which animals here perform very long journeys with great eaſe; their method of making them go forward is by pricking them with a goad. All Egypt is over-run with mountebanks, fortune-tellers, and people who exhibit tricks or ſlight of hand. That herd of vagrants, called gypſies, originally came from thence, being baniſhed by the Turks; and for many years impoſed upon the world by pretending to be verſed in the occult ſcience, or black art.

7. *Religion, Language, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the religion of Egypt?

M. The Turks and Arabs are Mahometans, and the natives, or Copts, profeſs chriſtianity, but it would be difficult to ſay of what kind.

S. What language do they ſpeak?

M. The Coptic, and ſometimes the modern Greek; but the Arabic is chiefly ſpoken.

S. How is Egypt governed?

M. It is ſubject to the Turks, and a viceroy appointed by the Grand Signior reſides at Grand Cairo, who has a certain number of beys or begs under him, for governing the ſeveral provinces, who are accountable to him for their actions; but he is accountable to no one except the Grand Signior.

S. What do the revenues of Egypt amount to annually?

M. About a million ſterling, but this is merely conjecture.

8. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. Is there any thing particular in the hiſtory of Egypt?

M. The ancient hiſtory of this celebrated kingdom is full of remarkable events; but this would open too large a field for theſe dialogues. About 520 years before the birth

birth of our Saviour, it was conquered by the Perſians, which finiſhed the ſucceſſion of the Pharaohs, whoſe race had ſat on the throne of Egypt for a long ſeries of years. It remained ſubject to Perſia till Darius was conquered by Alexander, at whoſe death, his conqueſts being divided among his generals, Egypt fell to the lot of Ptolemy, and continued in his family between two and three hundred years, Cleopatra being the laſt of his race who ſat on that throne. After her death it became a Roman province, and continued ſo for ſeven hundred years, when it was conquered by Omar, the ſecond caliph of the ſucceſſors of Mahomet. Theſe caliphs maintained their power over Egypt till the year 870, when the Egyptians ſet up a caliph of their own. The greateſt of theſe princes was Saladin, ſo formidable to the Chriſtians at the time of the cruſades. He inſtituted a military corps in Egypt, which he termed Mamalukes, who, in the year 1242, having depoſed Elmutan, their ſovereign, placed one of their own officers on the throne, and the Mamalukes continued ſultans of Egypt till about the year 1517, when it was reduced to its preſent ſtate of ſubjection by Selim, emperor of the Turks. In July 1798, the French landed an army in Egypt, under the command of their celebrated general Buonaparte, and made themſelves maſters of nearly the whole of the country; but as they have ſuffered great loſſes in their incurſion into Syria, and their communication with Europe is cut off by the combined fleets, it is not probable that they will be able long to retain poſſeſſion of it.

DIALOGUE XXXV.

The States of Barbary, Including Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca.

S. ARE theſe five the principal diviſions of the country poſſeſſed by the States of Barbary?

M. They are: and were formerly in much better condition than at preſent.

S. What

S. What are the dimenſions and ſituations of theſe ſeveral diviſions?

M. Morocco has been for many years united with Fez, and is about 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth: bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea: on the ſouth by Tafalit; on the eaſt by the kingdom of Algiers; and on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean.

The kingdom of Algiers is about 480 miles in length, and 70 in breadth: bounded on the north by the Mediterranean; on the ſouth by Mount Atlas; on the eaſt by the kingdom of Tunis; and on the weſt by the empire of Morocco.

Tunis is 220 miles in length, and 170 in breadth: bounded on the north and eaſt by the Mediterranean; on the ſouth by Tripoli and Biledulgerid; and on the weſt by the kingdom of Algiers.

Tripoli, including Barca, is about 1100 miles in length, and from 1 to 300 miles in breadth: bounded on the north by the Mediterranean: on the ſouth by the country of the Berberies; on the eaſt by Egypt; and on the weſt by the kingdom of Tunis.

S. Who are the Bereberies?

M. The original lords of this country; but being diſpoſſeſſed by the Romans, and afterwards by the Turks, many of them fled to the mountains, and afterwards returned into the plains. They ſtill continue their original wandering life, removing from place to place with their herds and flocks, in order to procure them freſh paſture, as often as they find it neceſſary.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. What is the nature of the air enjoyed by the States of Barbary.

M. In general it is very temperate; but at Algiers the ſoutherly winds, which are uſually exceedingly hot and violent, blow in the months of July and Auguſt, for five or ſix days together, when the air is quite ſuffocating, and the inhabitants are obliged to ſprinkle the floors of their houſes with water.

S. Is the ſoil fruitful?

M. Extremely

M. Extremely ſo; notwithſtanding it is at preſent, in a great meaſure, uncultivated.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are found in the States of Barbary?

M. Leopards, lions, tygers, bears, foxes, porcupines, apes, cameleons, and monſtrous ſerpents. The beaſts of burden, are camels, dromedaries, aſſes, and mules. The ſheep and black cattle of theſe ſtates are of a very indifferent breed; but their ſeas and rivers abound in excellent fiſh; and every ſpecies of wild fowl is found on the land.

S. What vegetables are produced there?

M. Corn, plenty of roots and herbs, all kinds of fruit, and vaſt quantities of hemp and flax.

3. *Commerce and Manufactures.*

S. Do theſe States carry on any commerce?

M. Yes, in leather, hides, carpets, fine mats, oſtrich feathers, elephants teeth, wool, dates, raiſins, olives, almonds, honey, wax, gum-arabic, ſandrac, embroidered handkerchiefs and ſword-knots.

S. Have they any manufactures?

M. A few in ſome of the above-mentioned articles, but they chiefly leave affairs of commerce to the Jews and Chriſtians ſettled among them, and the latter have eſtabliſhed ſilk and linen manufactures.

4. *Religion and Language.*

S. What is the eſtabliſhed religion of theſe ſtates?

M. In general the inhabitants are Mahometans.

S. What language do they ſpeak?

M. It varies greatly: in ſome of the inland countries the ancient African language is ſtill in uſe: in the maritime countries and ſea-port towns, a corrupt Arabic is ſpoken; and the ſailors are well acquainted with the Lingua Franca.

5. *Inhabitants and Cuſtoms.*

S. What ſort of people inhabit thoſe ſtates?

M. They vary as much as their language. In Morocco the Moors are naturally fair, but thoſe much expoſed to the air, are tawny. Vaſt numbers of Negroes likewiſe inhabit this empire, who reſemble thoſe of other parts in the diſagreeableneſs of their features. Tunis, which is the moſt poliſhed of all theſe ſtates, is remarkable for the beauty of its women, and the ſober, hoſpitable diſpoſition of its men.

S. Have they any particular cuſtoms?

M. The inhabitants of Tunis excepted, they are a very dirty people, particularly in their eating, their meat being all boiled to rags, and ſerved in a diſh, when every individual having tucked up his ſleeves, puts his hands into the meſs, and ſqueezes a lump of the ingredients together, which he greedily devours. The chief furniture of their houſes conſiſts of carpets and matraſſes, on which they ſit and lie. They never uncover their heads; but when they enter a religious place, or attend one of their princes, they always pull off their ſlippers.

6. *Conſtitution, Government, and Revenues.*

S. What is the conſtitution and government of theſe ſtates?

M. Morocco is governed by its own emperor, who is deſpotic, and only acknowledges the Grand Signior to be his ſuperior, paying him a diſtant allegiance, as the chief repreſentative of Mahomet. Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, which laſt includes Barca, have each a Turkiſh dey, who governs in the name of the Grand Signior, but he receives very little advantage from his ſubjects. Theſe deys are uſually appointed by the people, and the Porte confirms their choice: they are in ſome meaſure deſpotic, but in all matters of importance they are obliged to aſk the opinion of a council, conſiſting of thirty paſhas.

S. What do the revenues of the different ſtates amount to annually?

M. It

M. It is impoſſible to aſcertain; but thoſe of Algiers are ſuppoſed to amount to about one hundred and fifty thouſand pounds, which are exceeded by thoſe of Tunis; and thoſe of the emperor of Morocco's are about one hundred and ſixty-five thouſand pounds.

7. *Curioſities.*

S. Are there any curioſities in theſe ſtates?

M. There are no natural ones except their ſalt-pits, which in ſome places take up an area of ſix miles; but they abound in antiquities, conſiſting of amphitheatres, and other noble ruins of their former grandeur.

8. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What are the hiſtorical events of the ſtates of Barbary?

M. The firſt inhabitants are ſuppoſed to have come from Egypt, and their ſucceſſors growing weary of the Carthaginian yoke, became ſubject to the Romans, whom they aſſiſted in the reduction of Carthage In the fifth century the Vandals reduced the coaſt of Barbary, and it remained under their dominion, till recovered by the Grecian emperors. Theſe, in their turn, were obliged to reſign it to the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, whoſe conqueſts extended to moſt parts of Spain; but being driven from thence, and near falling victims to the Spaniards, they implored the protection of the Turkiſh admiral, Barbaroſſa, who freed them from the Spaniſh yoke, but impoſed his own in its place. The power of the Turks in theſe ſtates is however very much decreaſed, and in all probability will, in proceſs of time, be entirely annihilated.

DIALOGUE XXXVI.

Abyſſinia.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Abyſſinia?

M. It lies between 6 and 20 degrees of north latitude, and between 26 and 44 degrees of eaſt longitude,

longitude, being about 920 miles in length, and 900 in breadth.

S. What are its boundaries?

M. It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Sennaar or Nubia; on the eaſt partly by the Red-ſea, and partly by Dancala; on the weſt by Gorham; and on the ſouth by the kingdom of Gingiro and Alaba.

S. How is Abyſſinia divided?

M. According to Mr. Bruce, it is divided into the following twelve provinces.

Maſuah,	Gojam,
Tigre,	Damot,
Samen,	Maiſha,
Begemder,	Dembea,
Amhara,	Kuara,
Walaka,	Nara.

1. *Air and Seaſons.*

S. What is the nature of the air and ſeaſons in Abyſſinia?

M. The rainy ſeaſon continues for ſix months of the year, from April to September, which is ſucceeded by a cloudleſs ſky and vertical ſun; and cold nights which as immediately follow theſe ſcorching days. The earth notwithſtanding the heat of theſe days is yet perpetually cold, ſo as to feel diſagreeable to the ſoles of the feet, principally owing to the ſix months rains, during which no ſun appears.

2. *Animals and Vegetables.*

S. What animals are found in Abyſſinia?

M. No country in the world produces a greater number or variety of qnadrupeds. The tame or cow-kind are eſpecially numerous, and of ſeveral different kinds. Among the wild animals are prodigiou snumbers of gazelles of different ſpecies: hyænas which are very numerous and extremely fierce, jackalls and wild boars. The elephant, rhinoceros, giraffa, or camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low hot country, as are likewiſe the lion, leopard, and panther. The number of birds in Abyſſinia, we are told, exceeds that of other animals beyond proportion. There are ſeveral ſpecies of eagles and vultures. The Niſſar or golden eagle

is

is not only the largeſt of the eagle kind, but one of the largeſt birds that flies; from wing to wing it meaſures eight feet four inches. Storks are likewiſe very numerous, and a vaſt variety of them cover the plains in May, when the rains become conſtant. There are but few owls, but theſe are of a prodigious ſize, and extremely beautiful.

S. Are there not ſome inſects peculiar to Abyſſinia?

M. The moſt remarkable is the *Tſaliſalya*, or fly. It is in ſize very little larger than a bee, though of a thicker proportion. But however weak and contemptible in its appearance it is the terror of all other animals. Its ſting is ſo painful, that the moment its buzzing is heard, all the cattle forſake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die worn out with fatigue, fright, and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black lands and haſten down to the ſands of Atbara. The lion, the tiger, the rhinoceros, and the elephant, all fly before this ſmall but terrible inſect; and the camel notwithſtanding his great ſize and ſtrength, and though his body is covered with a thick ſkin, defended with ſtrong hair, is yet not capable of enduring the violent punctures which the fly makes with his proboſcis. He muſt loſe no time in removing to the ſands of Atbara; for when once attacked by this fly, his body, head, and legs break out into large boſſes, which ſwell, break, and putrify to the certain deſtruction of the creature.

S. What are the principal vegetables of Abyſſinia?

M. The *Papyrus*, which is a plant well known in Egypt, is found likewiſe in Abyſſinia. *Baleſſar*, Balm, or Balſam, is likewiſe a native of this country. The *Enſete*, is a herbaceous plant, which in ſome provinces ſupplies the inhabitants with food almoſt entirely. The *Tiff* is a grain commonly ſown all over Abyſſinia, where it ſeems to thrive equally on all ſorts of ground: from it is made the bread which is commonly uſed throughout this country. The Abyſſinians indeed have plenty of wheat, and ſome of it of an excellent quality, and they make as fine wheaten bread as any in the world; but the uſe of it is chiefly confined to people of the firſt rank. The acacia tree is very common in Abyſſinia, as are ſeveral other curious productions of the vegetable world.

3. *Lakes and Rivers.*

S. Are there any lakes in Abyſſinia?

M. The lake of Tzana, is conſiderably the largeſt in this country. It is forty-nine miles long, and thirty-five broad. The Nile, by a current always viſible, croſſes the end of it. There are about eleven inhabited iſlands in this lake which were formerly uſed as priſons for the great people, or for a voluntary retreat on account of ſome diſguſt or great misfortune, or as places of ſecurity to depoſit valuable effects during troubleſome times.

S. What rivers are there in Abyſſinia?

M. Several, but the principal is the Nile.

4. *Natural Curioſities.*

S. What natural curioſities are there in Abyſſinia?

M. The moſt deſerving notice, are the cataracts of the Nile, and the ſources of that river; of both which I ſhall proceed to give you ſome account.

The great cataract of Alata is about forty feet high, and, when the river has been increaſed by the rains, it falls in one ſheet of water, without any interval, above half an Engliſh mile in breadth, with a force and noiſe that is truly terrible, and which, Mr. Bruce ſays, ſtunned and made him, for a time, perfectly dizzy. When that traveller was there, a thick fume of haze covered the fall all round, and hung over the courſe of the ſtream, both above and below, marking its track, though the water is not ſeen. The river though ſwelled with rain, preſerved its natural clearneſs, and fell, as far as he could diſcern, into a deep pool, or baſon, in the ſolid rock. which was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the precipice, the ſtream, when it fell, ſeeming part of it to run back with great fury on the rock, as well as forward in the line of its courſe, raiſing a wave or violent ebullition, by its ſtruggle.

The ſources of the Nile are near a village called Geeſh, in the province of Damot. In the middle of a marſh near the bottom of the mountain of Geeſh, ariſes a hillock of a circular form, about three feet from the ſurface of the marſh itſelf, though apparently founded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is ſomething ſhort of twelve feet. It is ſurrounded

ſurrounded by a ſhallow trench, which collects the water, and voids it eaſtward: it is firmly built with ſod or earthen turf, brought from the ſides, and conſtantly kept in repair, and this is the altar upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed; for the Agows of Damot pay divine honours to the Nile; they worſhip the river, and thouſands of cattle have been offered and ſtill are offered to the ſpirit ſuppoſed to reſide at its ſources. In the middle of this altar is a hole obviouſly made, or at leaſt enlarged, by the hand of man. It is kept clear of graſs or other aquatic plants, and the water in it is perfectly pure and limpid, but has no ebullition or motion of any kind diſcernible upon its ſurface. This mouth or opening of the ſource is ſome parts of an inch leſs than three feet in diameter, and the water ſtood about two inches from the lip or brim. The ſpring is about ſix feet ſix inches deep.

Ten feet diſtant from the firſt of theſe ſprings is the ſacred fountain, about eleven inches in diameter; but this is eight feet three inches deep: and about twenty feet diſtant from the firſt, is the third ſource; its mouth is ſomething more than two feet wide, and it is five feet eight inches deep.

5. *Cities and Towns.*

S. Can you give me any deſcription of the principal cities and towns of Abyſſinia?

M. Gondar, the metropolis of Abyſſinia, is ſituated upon a hill of conſiderable height, the top of it, on which the town ſtands, being nearly plain. It contains, in time of peace, about ten thouſand families. The houſes are chiefly of clay, with their roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the conſtruction within the tropical rains. On the weſt end of the town is the king's houſe, formerly a ſtructure of conſiderable conſequence. It was a ſquare building, four ſtories high, flanked with ſquare towers; and from the top of it there was a magnificent view of all the country ſouthward to the lake Tzana. It is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but ſome ſpacious apartments ſtill remain, among others the audience chamber which is above one hundred and twenty

feet long. The palace and all its contiguous buildings are ſurrounded by a ſubſtantial ſtone wall thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner. Gondar ſtands in lon. 37. 33 E. of Greenwich, lat. 14. 57 N.

Dixan, the firſt town in Abyſſinia, on the ſide of Taranta, is built on the top of a hill perfectly in the form of a ſugar loaf. A deep valley ſurrounds it like a trench, and the road winds ſpirally up the hill till it ends among the houſes. It is true of Dixan, as of moſt frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries reſort thither. The town conſiſts of Moors and Chriſtians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of either of theſe ſects is a very extraordinary one:—that of ſelling children. The Chriſtians bring ſuch as they have ſtolen in Abyſſinia to Dixan as to a ſure depoſit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Maſuah, whence they are ſent over to Arabia or India. The prieſts of the province of Tigre, eſpecially thoſe near the rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice. Dixan is ſituated in lon. 40. 7 E. lat. 14. 57 N.

Axum is ſuppoſed to have been once the capital of Abyſſinia, and its ruins are now very extenſive; but, like thoſe of the cities of ancient times, conſiſt entirely of public buildings. In one ſquare, which ſeems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obeliſks, none of which have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of granite, and on the top of that which is ſtanding there is a *patera* exceedingly well carved, in the Greek taſte. Axum is watered by a ſmall ſtream which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley where ſtand the rows of obeliſks. The ſpring is received into a magnificent baſon, 150 feet ſquare, and thence is carried at pleaſure to water the neighbouring gardens. The latitude of this town is 14. 6 North.

Maſuah is ſituated on an iſland bearing the ſame name on the Abyſſinian ſhore of the Red Sea. The houſes are in general built of poles and bent graſs, as in the towns of Arabia; but beſides theſe, there are about twenty of ſtone, ſix or eight of which are two ſtories each. This town ſtands in lon. 39. 36 E. lat. 15. 35 N.

6. *Trade*

6. *Trade and Commerce.*

S. Has Abyſſinia any trade?

M. There is a conſiderable trade carried on at Maſuah, narrow and confined as the iſland is, and violent and unjuſt as is the government; but it is all done in a ſlovenly manner, and for articles which require but a ſmall capital. Property here is too precarious to riſk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of power enters into every tranſaction.

Gondar, and all the neighbouring country depend for the neceſſaries of life, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of ſuch articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit the province in which the ſources of the Nile are found, and who come conſtantly in ſucceſſion, a thouſand or fifteen hundred at a time, laden with theſe commodities, to the capital.

7. *Religion.*

S. What is the religion of Abyſſinia?

M. Mr. Bruce tells us, from the annals of Abyſſinia, that in the time of Solomon, all this country was converted to Judaiſm, and the government of the church and ſtate modelled to what was then in uſe at Jeruſalem.

Some eccleſiaſtical writers ſuppoſe that the converſion of Abyſſinia to Chriſtianity happened in the days of the apoſtles: but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apoſtle of the Abyſſinians) in the year of Chriſt 333, according to our account.

Their firſt biſhop Frumentius being ordained about the year 333, and inſtructed in the religion of the Greeks of the church of Alexandria by St. Athanaſius, then biſhop of that church, it follows that the religion of the Abyſſinians which they received at their converſion is that of the Greek church. They receive the ſacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruiſed in the huſk together as it grows; ſo that it is a kind of marmalade, and given in a flat ſpoon: they obſerve alſo circumciſion.

8. *History.*

S. Are we acquainted with the hiſtory of Abyſſinia?

M. Mr. Bruce has given a very ample detail of it, in a large quarto volume; but as a recapitulation of barbarous names and unintereſting events can afford but little amuſement or indeed inſtruction, I ſhall here cloſe my account of Abyſſinia.

DIALOGUE XXXVII.

Interior parts of Africa, Coaſt of Guinea, Caffraria, and the Country of the Hottentots.

S. WHAT is known of the interior parts of Africa?

M. Very little. In 1788, a ſociety called the *African Aſſociation*, conſiſting of a number of noblemen and gentlemen, eminent both for their ſtation and their abilities, was formed for the purpoſe of exploring the interior regions of this quarter of the world; and Mr. Ledyard and Mr. Lucas were ſelected as their miſſionaries. Mr. Ledyard died on the journey; and Mr. Lucas only proceeded to Meſurata, about 100 miles ſouth of Tripoli. He however communicated to the ſociety the information he had received from his fellow travellers, and eſpecially the reſult of the conferences he had with the ſheriff Imhammed relative to the kingdoms of Fezzan, Bornou, and Caſhna.

According to the accounts he received, the kingdom of Fezzan is a ſmall circular domain placed in a vaſt wilderneſs, as an iſland in the midſt of the ocean, containing near a hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzook is the capital, diſtant ſouth from Meſurata, about 390 miles. In this kingdom are to be ſeen ſome venerable remains of ancient magnificence, ſome diſtricts of remarkable fertility, and numerous ſmoaking lakes, producing a ſpecies of foſſil alkali called trona. Agriculture and paſturage are the principal occupations of the Fezzanners. They do not appear to have any coin: their medium of commerce is gold duſt. Their houſes, or rather huts, are built of clay, and are covered with branches of trees on which earth is laid: as

rain

rain never falls at Fezzan, this covering is a ſufficient protection. Their dreſs reſembles that of the Moors of Barbary; but during the heats of ſummer, which are intenſe, they only wear drawers, and a cap to protect their heads from the rays of the ſun.

South-eaſt of Mourzook according to the ſame narrative, at the diſtance of 150 miles, is a ſandy deſert, 200 miles wide; beyond which are the mountains of Tibeſti, inhabited by ferocious ſavages, tributary to Fezzan. The valleys between the mountains are ſaid to be fertiliſed by innumerable ſprings, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibeſtins to the king of Fezzan is twenty camel-loads of ſenna.

This kingdom is inconſiderable when compared with the two great empires of Bornou, and Caſhna, which lie ſouth of Fezzan, occupying that vaſt region which ſpreads itſelf from the river of the Antelopes for 1200 miles weſtward, and includes a great part of the courſe of the Niger. Caſhna, according to the account given of it by the ſheriff Imhammed, which it is probable is not a little exaggerated, contains a thouſand towns and villages, and in Bornou, which is ſtill more conſiderable, we are informed from the ſame authority that thirty languages are ſpoken. Bornou is repreſented as a fertile and beautiful country, its capital being ſituated within a day's journey of the river Wed-el-Gazel which is loſt in the ſandy waſtes of the vaſt deſert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdſmen, dwelling like the old patriarchs in tents, and whoſe wealth conſiſts in their cattle. Bornou, or Bernoa is a word ſignifying the land of Noah, for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark. Horſes, and horned cattle, goats, ſheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country. Though various ſorts of grain are cultivated, the uſe of the plough is unknown, and the hoe is the only inſtrument of huſbandry. Grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes, and lemons, and two ſpecies of melons, the water and the muſk, are produced in large abundance. The complexion of the natives is black, but they are not of the negro caſt. Their religion is the Mahometan, and their government an elective monarchy. On the death of the ſovereign the privilege of

chooſing a ſucceſſor from among his ſons is delegated to three perſons, conſidered as entitled to the greateſt reſpect from their age and wiſdom. The ſultan is ſaid to have five hundred ladies in his ſeraglio. He is able to bring a very large army into the field, which conſiſts almoſt entirely of horſe.

Bornou, the capital of this empire, is ſituated in a flat country, on the banks of a ſmall river. It conſiſts of a multitude of houſes, neatly plaſtered both within and without, with clay or mud; but they are ſo irregularly placed, that the ſpaces between them cannot be called ſtreets. Their moſques are conſtructed with brick and earth; and they have ſchools in which the koran is taught. The royal palace, forming a kind of citadel, is built in a corner of the town, which is ſurrounded by a wall. Bornou ſtands in lon. 27. 30 E. lat. 19. 40 N.

S. What are the moſt remarkable particulars of the kingdom and city of Tombut or Tombuctoo?

M. Tombuctoo is ſaid to be a rich and populous kingdom. The country abounds in millet, wheat, and barley, and is well watered by a number of wells and ſprings. Cloth and other European manufactures and produce are ſent to Tombuctoo by the caravans, and exchanged for ivory, ſlaves, ſenna, gold-duſt, dates, oſtrich feathers, &c. brought from the interior, and more maritime parts of Africa. The king of Tombuctoo is deſpotic; all perſons approaching him muſt proſtrate themſelves on the ground, take up the duſt and throw it over their heads; and even ambaſſadors are compelled to this ceremony at their firſt audience. The general guard of the ſovereign conſiſts of three thouſand horſemen, well armed with bows and poiſoned arrows, beſides a number of foot with ſhields and ſwords. The horſes are purchaſed from Barbary; but the king generally rides on an elephant.

The city of Tombuctoo is ſuppoſed to have been built in the thirteenth century by Soliman, who pretended to be of the royal houſe of Morocco. The houſes are ſaid to have been formerly magnificent: but at preſent are only built of wood, and covered with ſtraw or turf, except a magnificent moſque of ſtone, and the royal palace, which was built after the deſign of a Moor, who was baniſhed from

Granada

Granada in Spain. The caravans of Tripoli, and other parts of Africa trade to this city, which is ſituated near the Niger, in lon 0. 8 W. lat. 19. 59 N.

S. What is the ſituation, extent, and diviſions of the country called Guinea?

M. Guinea is a country of which little is known except the coaſt. It lies within the tropic of Cancer, between 12° W. and 80° E. longitude, and is divided into Lower and Upper. The latter comprehends the Grain Coaſt, the Ivory Coaſt, the Gold Coaſt, the Slave Coaſt (which includes Whidah and Ardrah) and Benin. The lower part is commonly called Congo, and includes the kingdom of Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela. The country is in general very unhealthy for Europeans, though the negroes live to a conſiderable age. The natives in general go almoſt naked; and ſeem to have but few ideas of either religion or honeſty. The commodities purchaſed here are gum ſeneca at Senegal; grain upon the Grain Coaſt; elephants' teeth upon the Ivory Coaſt; the greateſt quantity of gold upon the Gold Coaſt; and ſlaves which are furniſhed by all theſe coaſts in general. The Engliſh, Dutch, French, Danes, and other nations have factories here, and purchaſe ſlaves and other commodities. There are many little ſtates whoſe chiefs the ſailors dignify with the name of king, but very few deſerve that title. They are often at war with each other, when the priſoners taken on both ſides are ſold for ſlaves, and it is not uncommon for the neareſt of kin to ſell each other.

S. Which are the principal kingdoms on this coaſt?

M. Thoſe of Whidah and Dahomy, which latter conquered, and ſubjected the former in the year 1727. The climate of both theſe is ſaid to be extremely mild and the ſoil moſt luxuriantly productive. Whidah is ſo extremely populous that a ſingle village contains as many inhabitants as ſome intire kingdoms on the coaſt of Guinea. The women there till the land for their huſbands, unleſs they happen to be extremely beautiful, in which caſe they are maintained at home, with all the pomp of eaſtern nations, but with the loſs of liberty alſo, being never permitted to ſtir abroad nor to receive viſitors; and on the leaſt ſuſpicion they are ſold by their huſbands to the Europeans. There is a ſpecies of ſnake in Whidah which the natives hold ſa-

cred. It is not venomous, but extremely tame and familiar. Animals of all kinds are puniſhed with death for injuring one of theſe ſnakes. In 1697, a hog having deſtroyed one, an order was iſſued for a general ſlaughter of ſwine throughout the kingdom, and the deſtruction of the whole race was with difficulty prevented by the interpoſition of the king. When the Engliſh firſt ſettled in Whidah, the captain having unſhipped his goods on ſhore, the ſailors found one of theſe ſnakes in their magazine, which they ignorantly killed and threw upon the bank, without dreaming of any ill conſequences. The negroes, who ſoon diſcovered the ſacrilege and had it confirmed by the acknowledgment of the Engliſh, were not long in avenging the horrid impiety. All the inhabitants of the province aſſembled, attacked the Engliſh, maſſacred them all to a man, and conſumed their bodies and goods in the fire they had ſet to the warehouſe.

The king of Dahomy is perhaps the moſt abſolute deſpot in the world. The government of the country admits of no intermediate degree of ſubordination between king and ſlave, at leaſt in the royal preſence, where the prime miniſter is obliged to proſtrate himſelf with as much abject ſubmiſſion as the meaneſt ſubject; all acknowledging the right of the ſovereign to uſe his power at pleaſure. A miniſter of ſtate on his entrance crawls toward the apartment of audience on his hands and knees, till he arrives in the royal preſence, where he lays himſelf flat on his belly, rubbing his head in the duſt, and uttering the moſt humiliating expreſſions. Being deſired to advance, he receives the king's commands, or communicates any particular buſineſs, ſtill continuing proſtrate; for no perſon is permitted to ſit, even on the floor, in the royal preſence, except the women, and even they muſt kiſs the earth, when they receive the king's meſſage. The king of Dahomy maintains a conſiderable ſtanding army, commanded by an agaow or general, with ſeveral other ſubordinate military officers, who muſt hold themſelves in readineſs to take the field upon all occaſions at the command of the ſovereign.

S. What is the ſituation, extent, and produce of Caffraria and the country of the Hottentots?

M. The country known by the general denomination of Caffraria is a very extenſive region bounded on the north by Negroland

Negroland and Abyſſinia, on the weſt by part of Guinea, Congo, and the ſea: on the ſouth by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the eaſt by the ſea. It is divided into ſeveral territories and kingdoms, of which little is known. The name is ſuppoſed to be derived from the Arabic word *Caffer*, which ſignifies Infidel; the Mahometans giving this name to all who are of a different religion from themſelves.

Caffraria may be divided into two parts, Caffraria Proper, and the country of Hottentots. The inhabitants of Caffraria Proper are generally taller than the Hottentots, more robuſt, more fierce, and much bolder. The clothing of both ſexes is nearly the ſame, conſiſting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of braſs in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms; they are alſo adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers faſtened on their heads, with many other fantaſtical ornaments. The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate ſeveral vegetables which are not indigenous to their country; ſuch as tobacco, water melons, a ſort of kidney beans and hemp. The ſoil is ſo extremely fertile, that every kind of vegetable, whether ſown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance.

Among the animals of this country, are the tzezeiran, or blue antelope, and the nou or gnoo; a beautiful and rare animal which in ſhape reſembles a ſmall ox; there is alſo a ſmall ſpecies of antelope called Nou-metges, which ſeldom appears in the plains but keeps itſelf concealed in the buſhes, and thickeſt parts of the foreſt, and is at the utmoſt not more than twelve or fifteen inches in height. Among the birds are oſtriches, buſtards, the green and golden cuckoo of the Cape, and a ſpecies of ſmall eagle, with a long red bill, the back wings and tail of a lively blue, which feeds upon inſects, and makes its neſt in hollow trees. Among the reptiles is the golden yellow ſerpent, called kooper capel, whoſe bite is mortal: they grow to the length of upwards of five feet, and are nine inches in circumference.

The huts of the Caffres are more ſpacious and higher than thoſe of the Hottentots, and of a more regular form. Induſtry is a leading trait in the character of the Caffres.

Some arts, taught indeed by neceſſity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, diſtinguiſh them as a more civilized people than thoſe towards the ſouth.

Circumciſion, which is generally practiſed among them, proves that they either owe their origin to an ancient people, or have ſimply imitated the inhabitants of ſome neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance: they do not uſe it (as they ſay) in any religious or myſtical ſenſe.

They acknowledge a Supreme Being, and believe in a future ſtate, where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked puniſhed; but have no idea of the creation; thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in its preſent ſtate. They have no ſacred ceremonies. They inſtruct their own children, having no prieſts; but inſtead of them a kind of ſorcerers or conjurors whom they greatly revere.

They are governed by an hereditary king whoſe power is very limited, receiving no tax, and having no troops under his command. But he is permitted to take as many wives as he pleaſes; and has a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed. His cabin is neither higher nor better decorated than the reſt; and his whole family live around him, compoſing a group of twelve or fifteen huts. The diſtance of the different hordes makes it neceſſary that they ſhould have inferior chiefs, who are appointed by the king.

S. What are the diſtinguiſhing manners, cuſtoms, and character of the Hottentots?

M. The Hottentots inhabit a large country at the ſouthern extremity of Africa, extending, towards the north-weſt from the Cape of Good Hope beyond the mouth of Orange river; and in a north-eaſt direction from that Cape to the mouth of the Great Fiſh river which divides it from Caffraria. The Hottentots are as tall as moſt Europeans; but are more ſlender; and the characteriſtic mark of this nation is the ſmallneſs of their hands and feet, compared with the other parts of their body. Their ſkin is of a yellowiſh brown hue, reſembling that of a European who has the jaundice in a high degree. The Hottentots have not ſuch thick lips as their neighbours the Caffres, the Negroes and the Moſambiques; their mouth is of the middling

middling ſize, and they have the fineſt teeth imaginable; their heads are covered with hair more woolly if poſſible than that of the Negroes.

The Hottentots are naturally timid; their phlegmatic coolneſs, and their ſerious look, give them an air of reſerve, which they never lay aſide, even at the moſt joyful moments; while, on the contrary, all other black or tawny nations give themſelves up to pleaſure, with the livelieſt joy, and without any reſtraint. A profound indifference to the affairs of life inclines them very much to inactivity and indolence; the keeping of their flocks, and the care of procuring a ſubſiſtence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. They never follow hunting as ſportſmen, but like people oppreſſed and tormented by hunger. In ſhort, forgetting the paſt, and being under no uneaſineſs for the future, their attention is ſolely engaged with the preſent.

The garment which they uſually wear for covering their bodies is a ſheep-ſkin with the wool, called a caroſs, which is tied forward over the breaſt. The women wear two or three coverings formed of a ſkin, and faſtened about their bodies like aprons: the outermoſt of which is frequently adorned with glaſs beads. All theſe coverings are well ſmeared with greaſe. The women have likewiſe a peak to their caroſſes, which they turn up, forming with it a hood, or little pouch, in which they carry their children when very young. An ornament greatly in uſe with both ſexes is rings on their arms and legs. Moſt of theſe rings are made of thick leather ſtraps. It is theſe rings, that, according to Sparman, have given riſe to the almoſt univerſally received notion that the Hottentots wrap guts about their legs, in order to eat them occaſionally. Rings of iron, and copper, but eſpecially of braſs, of the ſize of a gooſe quill, are conſidered as genteeler and more valuable than thoſe made of leather.

Their habitations are as ſimple as their dreſs, and equally adapted to the wandering paſtoral life they lead. They live in huts of a circular form, reſembling a round beehive or vault. They are from eighteen to twenty feet in diameter at the ground. The higheſt of them are ſo low, that a middle-ſized man can ſcarcely ſtand upright in them. The fire-place is in the centre, and the door, which is low,

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is the only place that lets in the day-light, and at the ſame time the only outlet that is left for the ſmoke. Some authors have ſaid that, "the families of theſe ſavages ſleep all promiſcuouſly together, in the ſame hut, and are neither acquainted with difference of age, nor that invincible horror which ſeparates beings connected by blood." The Hottentots, indeed, confined to what is ſtrictly neceſſary, have never thought of preſerving, under an apparent decency, all the turpitude of unnatural inclinations; and ſeparate apartments for brother and ſiſter, mother and ſon, are not to be found among them. But to conclude becauſe they have only one habitation. one bed, and one mat, to repoſe on after the labours of the day, that they live like brutes, would be to calumniate innocence and offer an inſult to human nature. M. Vaillant, a late French traveller to the Cape of Good Hope, ſays he viſited more than one horde of them, and every where found the utmoſt modeſty and reſerve among the women, and even among the men.

There is a tribe of Hottentots who have received the name of Boſhies-men; from dwelling in woody or mountainous places. Theſe, particularly ſuch as live towards the north-eaſt, are ſworn enemies to the paſtoral life. They ſubſiſt by hunting and plunder, and never keep any animal alive for the ſpace of one night. By this means they render themſelves odious to the planters, and are purſued and exterminated like wild beaſts, or taken alive and made ſlaves.

The Hottentots are generally repreſented as a miſerable and poor nation, ſuperſtitious, ferocious, indolent, and exceſſively dirty; in a word they are vilified in every poſſible manner. That they beſmear themſelves with greaſe is a fact. But then it muſt be conſidered they are all excellent ſwimmers, and, perhaps the beſt divers in the world; and the practice of bathing, which they uſe ſeveral times a-day, can leave little power to ointments, or even to duſt to ſpoil and corrode the ſkin. The continual care and attention beſtowed, by the Gonaquas in particular, on their dreſs, ſufficiently prove that they are fond of cleanlineſs: all therefore that can be ſaid is, that it is ill underſtood; and even before we proceed ſo far it might be neceſſary to enquire, whether they are not obliged to greaſe themſelves

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in this manner, either on account of the temperature of the climate, or from a want of thoſe reſources which nature has not pointed out to them. Their clothes indeed are only the ſpoils taken from ſavage animals; but they do not neglect, as ſome have pretended, to clean and prepare them, before they employ them for making dreſſes.

"They are beſides" (obſerves M. Vaillant) "the beſt, the kindeſt, and moſt hoſpitable of people. Whoever travels among them may be aſſured of finding food and lodging; and though they will receive preſents yet they never aſk for any thing. If the traveller has a long journey to accompliſh, and if they learn from the information he requires, that there are no hopes of his ſoon meeting with other hordes, that which he is going to quit will ſupply him with proviſions as far as their circumſtances will allow, and with every thing elſe neceſſary for his continuing his journey, and reaching the place of his deſtination. Such are theſe people," adds he, "or at leaſt ſuch did they appear to me, in all the innocence of manners, and of a paſtoral life. They excite the idea of mankind in a ſtate of infancy."

DIALOGUE XXXVIII.

Iſlands on the Coaſt of Africa.

S. WHAT are the names of the African iſlands?

M. The Azores, or the Weſtern Iſlands, the three iſlands called the Madeiras, the Canaries, being ſeven in number, and formerly called the Fortunate Iſlands; Cape Verd Iſlands, which are about twenty in number; Goree, St. Matthew, Aſcenſion, St. Helena, Bourbon, Mauritius, or Maurice. Madagaſcar, the Comora Iſlands, Babelmandel, and Zocotra.

S. Pleaſe to give me ſome account of each?

M. I will, and endeavour to anſwer any queſtion you ſhall think proper to aſk me, in as conciſe a manner as poſſible; but to avoid perplexity, take them in the order I have already mentioned theſe iſlands.

1. *The*

1. *The Azores, or Weſtern Iſlands.*

S. Where are the Azores ſituated?

M. In the Atlantic ocean, between 37 and 40 degrees of north latitude; and between 25 and 32 degrees of weſt longitude.

S. Why are they called the Azores?

M. From the number of hawks found upon them when firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, the name ſignifying hawks in their language.

S. How many iſlands are there in this cluſter?

M. Nine.

S. What are their names?

M. Santa Maria, St. Miguel, or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Gracioſa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo.

S. Which is the moſt important of thoſe iſlands?

M. Tercera, on account of its large and commodious harbour; but St. Michael is the largeſt.

S. Is the air ſalutary, and the ſoil fertile?

M. In general the air is clear, ſerene, and healthy, but the ſoil indifferent; all theſe iſlands having ſuffered greatly by violent earthquakes and inundations. They however ſtill produce corn, wine, and a variety of fruit, and have plenty of cattle, fowl, and fiſh.

S. To what nation do theſe iſlands belong?

M. To the Portugueſe.

2. *Madeiras.*

S. Where are the Madeiras ſituated?

M. In the Atlantic ocean, between 32 and 33 degrees of north latitude, and between 18 and 20 degrees weſt longitude.

S. Why are they called the Madeiras?

M. The name was given them by the Portugueſe, from their being covered with woods when firſt diſcovered. Madeira, in their language, ſignifying wood.

S. By whom are theſe iſlands inhabited?

M. By the Portugueſe, who took poſſeſſion of them about the year 1519.

S. What are the productions of Madeira?

M. A profuſion of fine grapes, from whence valuable wines are made, particularly one ſort, which bears the name of theſe iſlands, of which no leſs than 20,000 hogſheads are annually exported; delicious fruits, as oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; corn, honey, and wax. The moſt excellent ſweetmeats in the world are made by the inhabitants, and the ſugar which grows there is very fine. There are numerous groves of cedar-trees, and thoſe which produce dragons blood, maſtic, and other gums. It abounds likewiſe, with boars, wild beaſts, and all ſorts of fowl.

S. Is there any thing worth remarking in the other two iſlands?

M. One, which is called Porto Santo, has excellent harbours, which are ſecure againſt all winds, except the ſouth-weſt, and are frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. This iſland is extremely fertile, but the third is only an inconſiderable barren rock.

3. *Canaries.*

S. Where are the Canaries ſituated?

M. In the Atlantic ocean, between 27 and 25 degrees of north latitude; and between 12 and 19 degrees of weſt longitude.

S. Were the Canaries known to the ancients?

M. They were, and called the Fortunate Iſlands, from the ſalubrity of the air, and the fineneſs of the climate The Carthaginians carried on a trade with the inhabitants of the Fortunate Iſlands before the Roman ſtate was founded.

S. What is the number of the Canary iſlands?

M. Seven.

S. What are their names?

M. Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuertaventura, and Lanzarote.

S. Which is the moſt conſiderable of theſe iſlands?

M. Grand Canaria, which is about 150 miles in circumference, and ſo exceedingly fertile, as to produce two harveſts in a year. Teneriffe is the next, the peak of which is a natural curioſity that deſerves notice. It aſcends in form of a ſugar-loaf, is about fifteen miles in circumference, and about three miles in perpendicular height. This ſurpriſing mountain, which may be ſeen at the diſtance

tance of 120 miles, is a volcano, and ſometimes throws out prodigious quantities of ſulphur and melted matter which lays waſte the country round it.

S. Are theſe iſlands fertile?

M. I have already obſerved that Grand Canaria produces two harveſts annually, and the reſt of theſe iſlands are exceedingly fruitful in corn, oil, and wine: the inhabitants carry on an extenſive trade in the latter article, of which, being held in great eſteem, not leſs than 10,000 hogſheads are annually exported into England.

S. Is the air ſalutary?

M. Exceedingly pure and temperate.

S. To whom do theſe iſlands belong?

M. To the Spaniards, who ſettled there in the year 1405.

4. *Cape Verd Iſlands.*

S. What is the ſituation of the Cape Verd Iſlands?

M. They lie in the torrid zone, and in the Atlantic ocean, between 14 and 18 degrees of north latitude, and 23 and 26 degrees of weſt longitude.

S. Why are they called Cape Verd Iſlands?

M. From their being ſituated near a cape of that name on the African coaſt, not far from the river Gambia.

S. When, and by whom were theſe iſlands diſcovered?

M. By the Portugueſe, in the year 1460.

S. What are their number?

M. About twenty, the principal of which are, St. Jago, Bravo, Fuego, Mayo, Bonaviſta, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio: the reſt are not worth notice, being chiefly barren, uninhabited rocks.

S. Which is the largeſt of theſe iſlands?

M. St. Jago, which is about 150 miles in circumference, and likewiſe the moſt fruitful and beſt inhabited.

S. Is the air and ſoil good?

M. The former is in general very hot, and ſometimes extremely unwholeſome; as to the latter, there is a vaſt deal of barren land in ſome places, but in others it produces Indian corn, roots, and garden-ſtuff of various kinds, ſugar, cotton, ſome wine, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and

and other tropical fruits. Hogs and poultry abound there, and at Mayo large quantities of ſalt are made by the heat of the ſun from the ſea-water, which at ſpring-tides is received into a ſort of reſervoir, formed by a ſand-bank, extending along the coaſt for two or three miles.

5. *Goree.*

S. Where is this iſland ſituated?

M. In the torrid zone, in 14 degrees 43 minutes north latitude and 17 degrees 20 minutes weſt longitude.

S. Why is it called Goree?

M. The Dutch, who firſt ſettled it, called it Goree from an iſland and town of the ſame name in Holland.

S. Is it large?

M. No, very ſmall, not more than two miles in circumference; but its ſituation is ſo near Cape Verd, that its trade is very conſiderable.

S. To whom does it belong?

M. To the French. It was taken by the Engliſh in 1759, but reſtored by the peace of 1763.

6. *St. Matthew.*

S. Where is the iſland of St. Matthew ſituated?

M. A little to the ſouth of the equator, in 1 degree 23 minutes ſouth latitude, and 6 degrees 11 minutes weſt longitude.

S. Whence had this iſland its name?

M. From its being diſcovered on St. Matthew's day.

S. Is there any thing remarkable in the iſland?

M. Nothing. It was once inhabited by the Portugueſe, but it is now entirely deſerted. That nation likewiſe diſcovered, and are ſtill in poſſeſſion of the iſlands of St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes Iſland, and Ferdinando Po, all ſituated in the Gulph of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; but neither of them afford any thing curious; though of infinite uſe in furniſhing ſhips with freſh proviſions and water.

7. *Aſcenſion.*

S. What is the ſituation of this iſland?

M. It lies in 7 degrees 41 minutes ſouth latitude, and 14 degrees 31 minutes weſt longitude.

S. Why is it called the iſland of Aſcenſion?

M. From its being diſcovered by the Portugueſe on Aſcenſion day.

S. Is the iſland of any value?

M. It is very mountainous, barren, and quite uninhabited; but it enjoys the advantage of a commodious harbour, which the Eaſt India ſhips generally enter to provide themſelves with turtles, of which there are great numbers on the iſland.

8. *St. Helena.*

S. What is the ſituation of St. Helena?

M. It lies in 15 degrees 55 minutes ſouth latitude, and 5 degrees 49 minutes weſt longitude.

S. To what circumſtance does it owe its name?

M. To its being diſcovered on the feaſt of St. Helena, the mother of Conſtantine the Great.

S. By whom was it diſcovered, and to whom does the iſland belong.

M. It is ſuppoſed to have been firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, but they having never ſettled a colony on the iſland, the Engliſh Eaſt India company took poſſeſſion of it in the year 1600, and appointed a governor, deputy-governor, and ſtore-keeper to manage their affairs.

S. Of what particular uſe is this iſland to that company?

M. Their ſhips always touch there in their voyage from India to England, to take in water and freſh proviſions.

S. Is the ſoil fertile?

M. It produces yams, potatoes, kidney-beans, plantains, bananas, figs, and grapes. Indian corn would alſo grow there in great plenty, if the rats, which harbour in the rocks, and always devour it, could be deſtroyed.

S. Is the rock you mentioned any ways remarkable?

M. The iſland itſelf is one continued rock of twenty-one miles in circumference, exceedingly high and ſteep. The

The only acceſſible part of it is at the landing-place, and the continual daſhing of the waves, renders even that dangerous.

S. Is the iſland populous?

M. There are not more than 300 families in the whole; but moſt of them deſcended from Engliſh parents.

9. *Bourbon.*

S. What is the ſituation of the iſland Bourbon?

M. It lies in the ſouthern ocean, in 20 degrees 52 minutes ſouth latitude, and 55 degrees 30 minutes eaſt longitude. It is 60 miles long and 45 broad.

S. What nation owns this iſland?

M. The French, who ſettled there in 1672, gave it the name of Bourbon, in honour of their royal family; and here their Eaſt-India ſhips touch and take in refreſhments, as ours do at St. Helena.

S. Is the climate ſalutary?

M. Yes; for the natural heat of it is greatly allayed by the cooling breezes which blow morning and evening from the ſea. But the inhabitants are frequently alarmed by terrible hurricanes, which ſhake the iſland with the utmoſt violence, though they ſeldom do any damage. On the ſouthern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, ſmoke, and ſulphur, with a moſt horrid noiſe.

S. Is this iſland fertile?

M. It abounds in horned cattle, hogs, goats, land and ſea tortoiſes, fiſh, fruit, graſs, tobacco, and great variety of fowls. Ambergris, coral, and the moſt beautiful ſhells, are found on the ſhore.

10. *Mauritius, or Iſle of France.*

S. Where is the iſland of Mauritius ſituated?

M. In the Indian or Southern ocean, in 20 degrees 15 minutes ſouth latitude, and 57 degrees 28 minutes eaſt longitude. It is 150 miles in circumference.

S. By whom was this iſland diſcovered?

M. By the Dutch, in 1598, who gave it the appella-

tion

tion it now bears, in honour of prince Maurice, their ſtadtholder, but it is now in the poſſeſſion of the French.

S. Does it contain any thing worthy attention?

M. The harbour is very ſpacious, the water a hundred fathoms deep at the entrance, and capable of containing fifty large ſhips, which ride ſecure againſt any wind that blows.

S. What is the nature of the climate?

M. Extremely healthy and pleaſant.

S. In what does the produce of Mauritius conſiſt?

M. In horned cattle, deer, goats and ſheep; tobacco, rice, and ſome ſorts of fruit. The rivers, of which there are ſeveral, are well ſtocked with fiſh, and the mountains are covered with ebony trees, and other kinds of valuable wood.

11. *Madagaſcar.*

S. What is the ſituation of Madagaſcar?

M. It lies between 10 and 26 degrees of ſouth latitude, and between 43 and 51 degrees of eaſt longitude.

S. From theſe boundaries it appears to be very large.

M. It is by far the largeſt of all the African iſlands: being near a thouſand miles in length, and between two and three hundred miles in breadth.

S. Is the air and climate healthy?

M. It is extremely temperate, conſidering the natural heat of the climate, and eſteemed very healthy.

S. Are the productions of Madagaſcar valuable?

M. Exceedingly ſo; it abounds in corn, ſeveral kinds of vegetables, vines, fruit-trees, ſugar, honey, gums, precious ſtones, different ſorts of ore, cattle, fowls, and fiſh.

S. When was this iſland diſcovered?

M. In 1492, by the Portugueſe, who were obliged to cede it to the French, in 1642; but their government proving diſagreeable, they were, in 1651, driven out by the natives, who have ever ſince kept the iſland in their own poſſeſſion.

12. *Comora Iſlands.*

S. What is the ſituation of the Comora Iſlands?

M. They lie in the ſtreights that ſeparate Madagaſcar from the continent of Africa, between 10 and 14 degrees of ſouth latitude, and 41 and 46 degrees of eaſt longitude. They are five in number, and are named Hinzuan, Comora, Mayotta, Mohilla, and Angezeia.

S. Is there any thing remarkable in thoſe iſlands?

M. No; the principal, which is called Hinzuan or Joanna, affords plenty of proviſions, and ſuch fruits as are produced between the tropics. It is of infinite uſe to our Eaſt India ſhips, when bound to Bombay, as they generally ſtop there for freſh proviſions. The inhabitants are very humane to ſtrangers, and profeſs the Mahometan religion.

13. *Babelmandel.*

S. What is the ſituation of this iſland?

M. It lies at the mouth of a ſtreight of the ſame name, which forms the paſſage into the Red Sea, in 12 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, and 44 degrees 30 minutes eaſt longitude.

S. What is the nature of this iſland?

M. There is nothing on it which deſerves attention; being a barren ſpot of earth not exceeding five miles in circumference. Formerly indeed, when the ſtreight of Babelmandel was the only paſſage through which the valuable treaſures of India were conveyed to Europe, this ſmall iſland was of the greateſt importance; but ſince the diſcovery of a paſſage by the Cape of Good Hope, it has been abandoned, and is now no more than a deſert.

14. *Zocotra.*

S. What is the ſituation of Zocotra?

M. It is ſituated about 30 leagues to the eaſt of Cape Guardafui, a promontory on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, in 12 degrees north latitude, and 55 degrees eaſt longitude.

S. Is this iſland fruitful?

M. Yes;

M. Yes; for beſides thoſe fruits and plants which are commonly found between the tropics, it yields frankincenſe, gum tragacanth, and aloes.

DIALOGUE XXXIX.

AMERICA *in general.*

S. THIS I remember is one of the four capital diviſions of the earth: but I ſhould be glad to know ſomething more particular with regard to its dimenſions, ſituation, &c.

M. I will endeavour to ſatisfy you in the conciſeſt manner poſſible. It extends from 80 degrees north to 56 degrees ſouth latitude, and from 35 to 136 degrees of weſt longitude. It is between eight and nine thouſand miles in length, and in ſome parts near 3690 miles in breadth. It enjoys all the variety of climates known in this terraqueous globe; poſſeſſes a conſiderable part of both hemiſpheres, and has two ſummers and a double winter. The eaſtern ſhores are waſhed by the Atlantic and Southern oceans, and the weſtern by the great South Sea or Pacific ocean. Hence America enjoys the advantage of carrying on a very valuable commerce with the other three quarters of the globe. It conſiſts of two great continents, diſtinguiſhed by the names of North and South America. Theſe are connected by an iſthmus, or neck of land near 1500 miles long; but not more than 60 miles broad in the narroweſt part. This is called the Iſthmus of Darien. In the gulph formed by the northern and ſouthern continents, lie a multitude of iſlands, ſome of them large, moſt of them fertile, and all of them valuable. They are called the Weſt Indies, to diſtinguiſh them from the countries and iſlands on the eaſtern coaſts of Aſia, which are ſtiled the Eaſt Indies.

S. Was America known to the ancients?

M. No. It continued under the veil of obſcurity till the latter end of the fifteenth century, when Chriſtopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, diſcovered it, and made the inhabitants of Europe acquainted with a new world.

S. Had

S. Had Columbus any idea of this large continent; or did he diſcover it by accident?

M. He had not the leaſt idea there was any ſuch continent. He intended to reach the Eaſt Indies by ſailing to the weſtward; but inſtead of the country he ſought, he diſcovered another till then unknown.

S. What induced Columbus to undertake ſo dangerous a voyage?

M. Before the Portugueſe found a paſſage to the Eaſt Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, the trade with that country was carried on by the Red Sea, and Egypt. The rich commodities were brought in ſhips to the northern extremity of the Red Sea, and carried from thence by caravans acroſs the deſerts to Alexandria, Aleppo, and other places in the Levant. At theſe places the Venetians and Genoeſe purchaſed the commodities of India, and diſperſed them all over Europe. By this commerce they grew rich, and became the moſt powerful ſtates of that time. But the diſcovery of the Portugueſe ſtopped entirely the ſource of their wealth; and the whole trade of India was turned into another channel. Columbus was deſirous of retrieving part of this traffic, and propoſed ſailing to the Eaſt Indies by a weſtern courſe.

S. Why ſhould he attempt ſo dangerous and uncertain a voyage, when a way to the Eaſt Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, was already known?

M. The Portugueſe had obtained a bull from the pope, by virtue of which they were entitled to all the lands, iſlands, &c. they had, or ſhould diſcover to the eaſtward of the meridian of the Azores. Conſequently all the nations of Europe, who then acknowledged the pope's authority, were totally excluded from ſharing in the Indian trade, unleſs ſome method could be found to elude the force of the bull granted by his holineſs. Columbus propoſed a ſure method by ſailing to the weſtward. It was conſidered at Rome as impoſſible to reach any part of the Eaſt Indies by a weſtern courſe: the pope was not acquainted with the figure of the earth.

S. Did Columbus meet with encouragement from his countrymen?

M. Not the leaſt: they ridiculed his propoſal and conſidered it as the reveries of a madman. They were not

better geographers than the Roman pontiff. Piqued at the inſolence of his ignorant countrymen, Columbus applied ſucceſſively to the courts of Liſbon, Paris, and London, but without ſucceſs. At laſt Ferdinand and Iſabella of Spain, liſtened to his propoſal, and a fleet was fitted out for making this important diſcovery. Columbus ſailed on this remarkable expedition in 1492, and after a voyage of thirty-three days, diſcovered one of the Bahama iſlands, and afterwards the iſland of Hiſpaniola, one of the largeſt in the Weſt Indies. He made three ſucceſſive voyages, in the laſt of which he diſcovered the continent of America, and convinced the world that his propoſals were founded on a more ſolid baſis than the ravings of a lunatic.

S. Did Columbus meet with the treatment his great merit and the importance of his ſervices deſerved?

M. Far from it: he was treated like a traitor, in the very country he had diſcovered, and in that ignominious manner ſent over to Europe. He enjoyed, however, the glory of making one half of the world known to the other; a glory ſo much the more valuable, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which diſfigured all the exploits of thoſe who came after him, and accompliſhed the execution of his plan. He died at Validolid in Spain, in 1506.

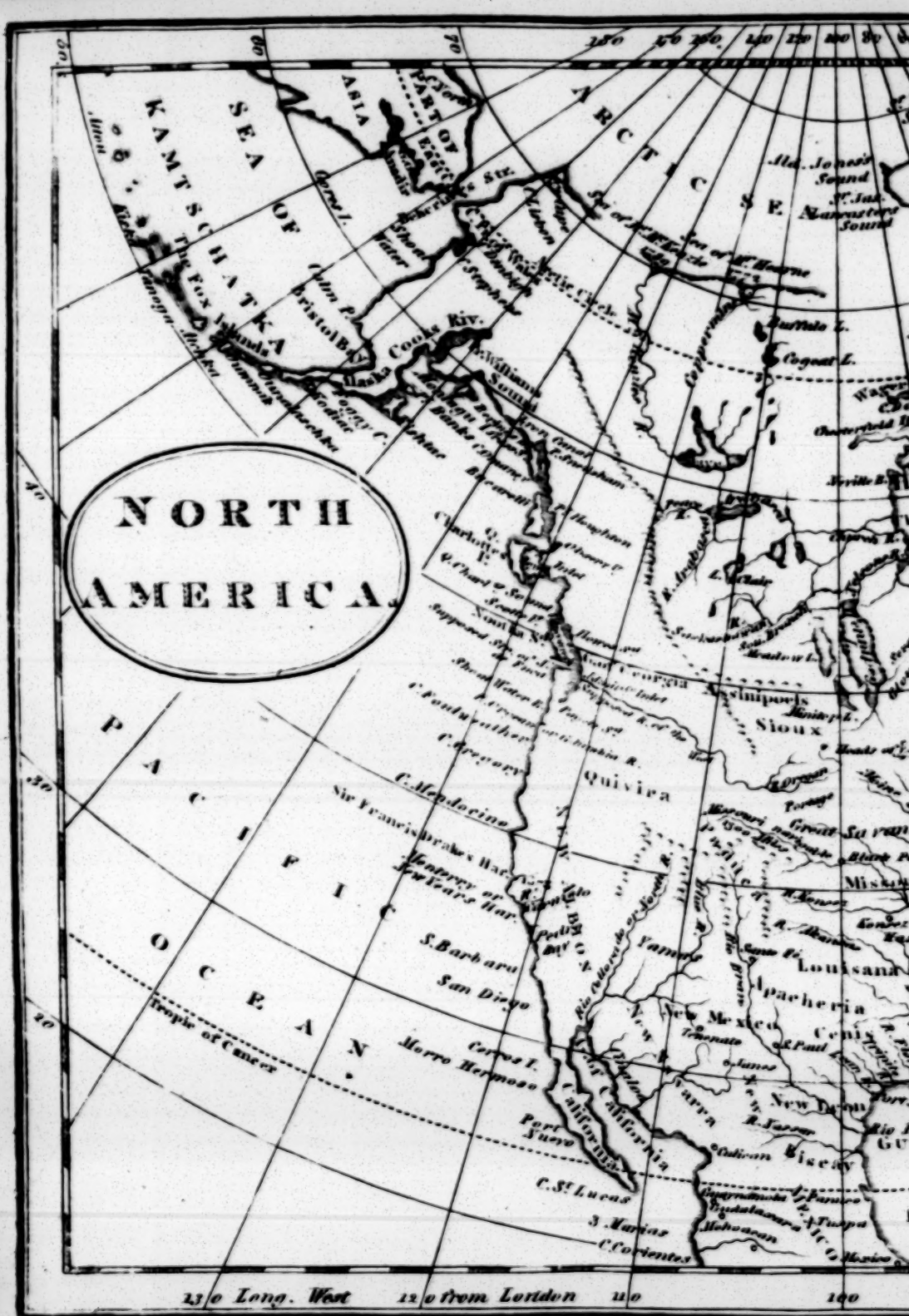
S. How came the New World to be ſtiled America, when it was diſcovered by Columbus, and therefore ſhould certainly have been called by his name?

M. Your remark is juſt. Columbus had an undoubted title to that honour; but it was wreſted from him by one Americus Veſpuſius, a merchant of Florence, who firſt viſited the ſouthern continent, and being an able geographer, and a perſon of great addreſs, obtained the honour of giving his name to half the globe.

S. The Spaniards are not, I think, the ſole proprietors of America?

M. Very far from it. The United States of America are of very great extent; and the Engliſh are in poſſeſſion of New Britain, Canada, Nova-Scotia, and many valuable iſlands in the Weſt Indies. The Portugueſe are poſſeſſed of Braſil a very extenſive country on the eaſtern ſide of South America. The French have a ſettlement in Guiana, and ſeveral valuable ſugar iſlands in the Weſt Indies,


BIBLIOTHECA BODLEIANA


NORTH AMERICA
PACIFIC OCEAN
SEA OF KAMTSCHATKA
ASIA
PART OF
ARCTIC SEA
Quivira
Sioux
Louisana
Apacheria
New Mexico
California
Bristol Bay
Cook Riv.
Behring Straits
Sir Francis Drakes Harb.
S. Barbara
San Diego
Cerros I.
Morro Hermoso
Port Nuevo
C. St Lucas
3 Marias
C. Corrientes
Troops of Cancer
Fox Islands
Alaska
Kodiak
Mississippi
Missouri
Hudsons Bay
Baffins Bay
Davis Straits
Greenland
Labrador
Canada
Nova Scotia
New Brunswick
Newfoundland
Gulf of St. Lawrence
Gulf of Mexico
Florida
Cuba
Jamaica
Hispaniola
Porto Rico
Bahama Islands
Virginia
Carolina
Georgia
Mexico
Yucatan
Guatimala
Honduras
Mosquitos
Panama
Terra Firma
Peru
Chili
Paraguay
Buenos Ayres
Falkland Islands
Terra del Fuego
Cape Horn
Magellanes Straits
Cape Virgin Mary
Cape Blanco
Cape Gracias a Dios
Cape Corrientes
Cape Catoche
Cape Florida
Cape Hatteras
Cape Breton
Cape Farewell
Cape Chudleigh
Cape Dobbin
Cape Walsingham
Cape Hamilton
Cape Bathurst
Cape Prince of Wales
Cape Lisburne
Cape Thompson
Cape Newenham
Cape Douglas
Cape Elizabeth
Cape Edgecumbe
Cape Fairweather
Cape Mendocino
Cape Gregory
Cape Foulweather
Cape Orford
Cape Flattery
Cape Disappointment
Cape Blanco
Cape Mayo


BAFFIN'S BAY
DAVIS STRAITS
GREENLAND
ICELAND
HUDSON BAY
Thunderhill P.
CANADA
UNITED STATES
Mississaries
Ohio R.
Missisipi R.
GULF OF MEXICO
Bay of Campeche
Florida
Bahama Isles
Virgin Is.
Windward Passage
JAMAICA
S. DOMINGO
CARIBBEAN SEA
Halifax
C. Breton
Newfoundland
Bank of
C. Race
C. Hatteras
Charles Town
Port Royal
Savanna
Georgia
Albemarle
Chesapeak B.
New York
Delaware R.
Maryland
Penſylvania
Virginia
Kentucky
Hudſon R.
Connecticut R.
Rhode Island
Boſton
Portland
Nova Scotia
Canada R.
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Lake Champlain
Lake Winnipeg
Lake Athapuſcow
Lake Slave
Lake Dubawnt
Lake Winnipegoſis
Lake Manitou
Lake Nipigon
Lake Nipiſſing
Lake Abbitibbi
Lake Mistaſſini
Lake Nettiling
Lake Aſſiniboils

Indies. The Dutch have alſo a ſettlement in Guiana, and a few ſmall iſlands in the Weſt Indies: and the Danes have two or three iſlands, though they are of little conſequence; ſo that the Engliſh, Spaniards, and Portugueſe may be conſidered as the principal proprietors of America. I ſhall now proceed to deſcribe the different parts of the New World, beginning with the colonies belonging to the Engliſh.

DIALOGUE XL.

BRITISH AMERICA.

New Britain.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of New Britain?

M. New Britain comprehends all the country north of Canada, commonly called the Eſquimaux country, including Labrador, and New North and South Wales. It lies between 50 and 67 degrees north latitude, and 50 and 105 degrees weſt longitude. It is bounded on the north by unknown lands, on the ſouth by Canada, and the river St. Laurence, on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, and on the weſt by unknown countries.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. What is the nature of the air and ſoil?

M. The exceſſive cold of the former, renders the latter entirely barren; for in many parts the earth remains frozen ſix feet deep all the ſummer, and the mountains are perpetually covered with ſnow.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are found in New Britain?

M. Buffaloes, bears, wolves, foxes, wild cats, mooſe-deer, rein-deer, ſtags, martins, ermins, ſquirrels, hares, beavers, and otters. The rivers abound in all kinds of fiſh, but they are not ſo highly flavoured as thoſe produced

in the ſtreams of England. The woods afford plenty of geeſe, buſtards, partridges, and every ſort of wild fowl. Both the birds and beaſts are, during the winter, all cloathed in white, but on the return of ſummer, they change to their natural colour, which varies as in other countries.

S. Are there any vegetables?

M. I have already acquainted you with the extreme cold of the climate, conſequently none but the moſt hardy vegetables can be produced. In the ſouthern parts there is plenty of graſs, and very large trees, fit for timber.

3. *Mountains, Rivers, and Bays.*

S. Are there any mountains in this part of America?

M. Several exceedingly high ones, whoſe tops are continually covered with ſnow; and the wind by blowing over them moſt part of the year, becomes ſo extremely cold, that the country is hardly habitable by Europeans.

S. What are the names of the principal rivers in New Britain?

M. Black river, Rupert river, Albany, or Chiekervam river, Mooſe river, Severn river, Nelſon river, Berray river, Mercour river, and Munks river.

S. Are there any bays?

M. Several, the principal of which is Hudſon's Bay.

4. *Inhabitants and Cuſtoms.*

S. What ſort of people are the inhabitants?

M. In general they exceed the middling ſtature, and are of a tawny complexion. They are very hoſpitable, admitting a ſtranger to eat or drink with them, without aſking any queſtions; but in return, when they enter a town they expect the ſame treatment, and it is always cuſtomary to refreſh them at any houſe they think proper to enter. The Eſquimaux are a very ſavage and faithleſs people. It is almoſt impoſſible to have any dealings with them: they have not the leaſt idea of honeſty.

S. Have they any particular cuſtoms?

M. They

M. They lead a wandering life, which is chiefly employed in hunting and fiſhing. In the ſummer they go almoſt naked, rubbing themſelves with bears greaſe or the oil of ſeals, in order to prevent their being ſtung by the muſketoes or other inſects, and in the winter they are clothed with oiled beaver ſkins; their buſkins and ſhoes are of deer ſkins.

5. *Trade and Commerce.*

S. In what does the trade and commerce of theſe Indians conſiſt?

M. In furs, which they bring from diſtant parts to Port Nelſon, and exchange with the Hudſon's Bay company for guns, powder, ſhot, hatchets, and other iron tools; tobacco, brandy, paint, hats, and coarſe cloth.

DIALOGUE XLI.

CANADA.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Canada?

M. It lies between 45 and 52 degrees north latitude, and 61 and 81 degrees of weſt longitude; being about 600 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. While it belonged to the French, its bounds were extended by that people as far as the Pacific ocean. A very ſmall part only of that prodigious country was, notwithſtanding they give it ſuch amazing limits, ever cultivated. The banks of the river St. Laurence formed their principal ſettlements. It is now a Britiſh colony, called the Province of Quebec.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Canada ſalutary?

M. Remarkably ſo, though the winters are intenſely cold; the ſummers are exceedingly pleaſant.

S. Is the ſoil fertile?

M. In general it is very good, particularly in the Iſle of Orleans, near Quebec; the lands upon the banks of the rivers are very rich.

2. *Rivers and Lakes.*

S. Is not Canada famous for its rivers?

M. Yes, they are very numerous, and ſome of them very large. The principal are St. Laurence, Seguinay, Outtanais, Trois Kivieres, St. John's, and Deſprairies; but the firſt is by far the moſt conſiderable. It iſſues from the lake Ontario, and, paſſing by Montreal, continues its courſe north eaſt, and meets the tide upwards of four hundred miles from the ſea. In its courſe it forms a great number of bays, harbours, and fruitful iſlands; and having received innumerable ſtreams, it becomes ninety miles broad at Cape Roſieres, where it falls into the ocean.

S. What lakes are there in Canada?

M. Several very large ones, among which are lake Ontario, lake Erie, or Oſwego, lake Huron, lake Michigan, and lake Superior, all navigable for veſſels of any burden.

3. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are found in Canada?

M. Buffaloes, carcajous, wild cats, bears, foxes, ſtags, elks, rein-deer, beavers, weſels, ferrets, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, and in the ſouthern parts numbers of wild bulls, remarkably ſmall deer, and ſeveral ſorts of roebucks.

S. Are there any curious fowls in that part of America?

M. It abounds in eagles, goſhawks, falcons, tercels; red, grey, and black partridges, ſnipes, ducks, of which there are various ſpecies; buſtards, ſwans, geeſe, turkeys, water-hens, and cranes. There are likewiſe plenty of ſmall birds, ſuch as ſwallows, larks, thruſhes, goldfinches, blackbirds, a ſpecies of ortelan, called the whitebird; the Canadian wood-pecker, and the flybird, which, with all its plumage, does not exceed a cock-chaffer in ſize. The colours of this little creature are aſtoniſhingly beautiful.

S. Do the rivers abound in fiſh?

M. Yes; and of excellent quality. There are, beſides

ſides turtles, lobſters, ſalmon, trout, lampreys, ſhads, ſmelts, mackerel, conger-eels, anchovies, pilchards, herrings, and ſoals; ſea-cows, ſea-wolves, chaouraſous, goberques, porpoiſes, lencornets; and, in ſome of the rivers, a ſmall ſpecies of crocodile. The river St. Laurence has two ſorts of fiſh, called the gilthead, and the achigan, peculiar to itſelf.

S. Are there not ſeveral kinds of ſerpents in Canada?

M. Yes, among which is the rattle-ſnake, which, if not the moſt venomous, is the moſt extraordinary. It is from two to four feet in length, and thick in proportion. The colour is a brown, variegated with deeper ſhades of the ſame tinct; and at the extremity of its tail is placed the rattle, which in form reſembles the pod of a French bean when dried on the plant; and like that, has five or ſix diviſions; in each of theſe are ſeveral ſmall round bones, which, by the leaſt motion of the creature, rattle, and from this circumſtance it derives its name. This ſnake ſeldom bites a man unleſs provoked; but the Indians frequently hunt it for its fleſh, which they eſteem a delicacy. When purſued, it folds itſelf round, with the head in the center, and then darting out to its full length, endeavours to bite its antagoniſt, and if it ſucceeds in the attempt, ſome remedy muſt be inſtantly applied to the wound, or it proves mortal. It is ſaid that an herb grows in moſt places where this reptile is found, called rattle-ſnake herb, and that the root pounded, or chewed, and laid on the wound, is a ſovereign cure. The rattle-ſnake, when rendered very furious, will frequently bite itſelf and put an end to its own exiſtence; and any tree, or other vegetable, which it wounds with its teeth, will, in a ſhort time wither and decay.

S. Are there any vegetable productions in Canada, that deſerve notice?

M. Yes, of ſeveral kinds, but only particular parts are fertile enough to yield wheat, rye, barley, and many other ſorts of grain. Turkey corn, French beans, capillaire, gourds, melons, and the hop plant, are alſo produced there. The meadow grounds, which are well watered, afford excellent graſs; and the almoſt unbounded foreſts of North America, contain the greateſt variety of trees in the

world. Amongſt many others, Canada produces the white and the red pine, the white and the red oak, the white and the red cedar, the white and the red elm, the free, the mongrel, and the baſtard aſh-trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth walnut-trees, and great numbers of beech-trees, and poplars. One of the moſt curious plants in Canada is the cotton-tree, on the top of which grows ſeveral tufts of flowers, and from theſe the inhabitants, in the morning, bruſh a ſweet ſubſtance reſembling honey, which when boiled, anſwers all the purpoſes of ſugar. The tree yields pods filled with extremely fine cotton, and from that circumſtance it derives its name. The vinegar-tree, and the ſun-plant are likewiſe natives of Canada. The fruit of the former, being infuſed in water, makes excellent vinegar; and the latter riſes to the height of ſeven, and ſometimes eight feet, the flowers which it bears reſembling our marigolds.

4. *Mines and Curioſities.*

S. Are there any mines in Canada?

M. An exceedingly fine lead mine has been diſcovered near Quebec. It is alſo ſaid, but with what certainty I cannot determine, that ſilver has been found in ſome of the mountains. There are plenty of coal-mines.

S. Does this part of America boaſt of any curioſities?

M. Its amazing foreſts and lakes may juſtly be eſteemed ſuch, and the ſtupendous fall or cataract of water which prevents the junction of lake Erie with lake Ontario, is, without exception, as great a natural curioſity as any in the whole world. It is uſually termed the falls of Niagara. Near the mouth of the cataract the water is about half a mile wide, and croſſed by a rock in form of a horſe-ſhoe, over which it falls in a perpendicular direction about one hundred and fifty feet. By this account of the height and breadth you may form ſome idea of the tremendous noiſe the fall of ſuch a large body of water muſt occaſion on the rocks below: it is frequently heard upwards of fifteen miles. The violence with which it precipitates itſelf is ſo great that it rebounds to an amazing height: and being entirely converted into foam, it appears as white as ſnow. At ſome diſtance the vapour ariſing from this prodigious

prodigious fall reſembles a cloud or pillar of ſmoke, and, when the ſun ſhines, the ſpectator, if properly ſituated, ſees a beautiful rainbow.

5. *Trade and Manufactures.*

S. In what do the trade and manufactures of Canada conſiſt?

M. They have very few manufactures, but carry on an extenſive trade with Europe, for wine, brandy, coarſe woollen cloths, duffel blankets, linen, guns, powder, ball, flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds; for all which articles they exchange the produce of their own country, viz. furs, ſkins, ſnake-root, capillaire, &c.

6. *Government.*

S. In what manner is Canada governed?

M. Canada was conquered by the Engliſh in 1759, and confirmed to them by the French at the peace of 1763. It was then divided into three governments, viz. Quebec, Montreal, and Trois Rivieres. In 1774, this country was formed into a province, called Quebec, from the name of the capital; a government was inſtituted conformably to the French laws of Canada, and the Roman-catholic religion eſtabliſhed. In 1791, the country was divided into two provinces, Upper Canada, and Lower Canada, of which latter province, Quebec is the chief town, and a conſtitution reſembling that of England, was given to each province.

DIALOGUE XLII.

NOVA SCOTIA, *or* NEW SCOTLAND.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Nova Scotia?

M. It lies between 43 and 49 degrees of north latitude, and 60 and 67 degrees of weſt longitude; being about 350 miles in length, and 250 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the river St. Laurence, on the

ſouth by New England and the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt by the ſame ocean, and on the weſt by Canada and New England. In 1784, part of this country was formed into a new province, under the name of New Brunſwick. Halifax is the chief town of Nova Scotia, and St. John's of New Brunſwick.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Nova Scotia deſirable?

M. Quite the contrary; for the winter, which laſts ſeven months, when the weather is intenſely cold, is ſuddenly ſucceeded by an almoſt inſupportable heat; beſides which, a gloomy fog is, for the greater part of the year, ſpread over the face of the whole country. Such a climate muſt certainly be very prejudicial to mankind in general, but it is particularly ſo to Europeans.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. In general very poor and barren. There are however ſome tracts to the ſouthward, where the ſoil is as deep and rich as in any other part of America.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are found in New Scotland?

M. Deer, beavers, otters, and moſt of thoſe I have already mentioned in Canada. Wild fowl and all kinds of game are found in plenty; and the rivers are ſtocked with fiſh, particularly herrings, ſalmon, ſturgeon and cod.

S. Are there any vegetables?

M. It is natural to conclude that ſo poor a ſoil, as I have deſcribed that of Nova Scotia to be in general, cannot produce vegetables in any perfection. The corn is thrivelled, and the graſs intermixed with a ſpungy moſs. Hemp and flax grow better here than any other vegetable. The country is almoſt covered with one continued foreſt, and produces great quantities of timber very proper for ſhip-building. Large quantities of pitch and tar are extracted from the pines and firs, which form a conſiderable part of the woods.

3. *Commerce.*

S. Do the inhabitants carry on any commerce?

M. Yes, in exchange for their fiſh and timber, Great Britain ſupplies them with woollen and linen cloth, and other neceſſaries; alſo fiſhing tackle, and rigging for ſhips.

4. *Bays, Lakes and Rivers.*

S. What are the names of their principal bays?

M. St. Laurence, Chenigto, Green-bay, Gaſpe, Chaleurs, Chebucto and the bay of the iſlands.

S. Are there any lakes?

M. Several, but they are not diſtinguiſhed by any particular names.

S. How many rivers are there in New Scotland?

M. Seven, viz. St. Laurence, Nipiſiguit. Riſgouche, St. John, Paſſamagnadi, Penobſcot, and St. Croix.

5. *Hiſtorical Events, and form of Government.*

S. When, and by whom was Nova Scotia ſettled?

M. By the Engliſh in the reign of James I. who made a grant of it to his ſecretary, Sir William Alexander. From that period till the peace of Utrecht it was by turns the property of the French, Engliſh, and private perſons, but it was then confirmed to the Engliſh, who, in 1743, at the requeſt of lord Halifax, ſent three thouſand families, whoſe expences were defrayed by the government, to plant a colony in this country. Theſe emigrants built a town upon Chebucto bay, which they called Halifax, in honour of their patron. Since that time the inhabitants of this province. New Brunſwick, and the iſlands adjacent have increaſed to about 50,000, and live very comfortably by the trade they carry on in furs, fiſh, timber, and naval ſtores.

S. How is juſtice adminiſtered in this colony?

M. By an Engliſh governor, who is always appointed by his majeſty, and reſides at Halifax. Some regiments of Engliſh ſoldiers are garriſonod in that town, to protect

the inhabitants, and ſhips are continually kept there for the ſecurity of their fiſhery.

DIALOGUE XLIII.

THE UNITED STATES.

S. WHAT is the extent, boundaries, and population of the United States of America?

M. The United States of America, conſiſt of thoſe colonies which detached themſelves from the mother country, in conſequence of the parliament of Great Britain attempting to tax them without the intervention of their aſſemblies. By the peace which followed the American war, their independence was acknowledged, and they then conſiſted of thirteen ſtates, namely, Maſſachuſetts, New Hampſhire, Rhode Iſland, Connecticut, New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. Only eleven of theſe ſtates acceded, at firſt, to the new federal conſtitution, but they were afterward joined by North Carolina, and Rhode Iſland; and Kentucky, Vermont, and Tenneſſee, having ſince been added to them, the preſent number of the ſtates that form this great American republic is ſixteen.

The territory of the United States, is in length 1,250 miles; and in breadth 104[illegible]; lying between lat. 31 and 46 N. and lon 61 and 95 W. According to the computation of Mr. Hutchins, it contains a million of ſquare miles; or 640,000,000 of acres; from which if we deduct 51,000,000 for water, there will remain 589,000,000 acres of land in the United States.

According to the cenſus taken by order of Congreſs in 1790, the number of the inhabitants of the United States of America was 3,930,000 nearly. In this number none of the inhabitants of the territory north weſt of the Ohio were included. Theſe added would undoubtedly have increaſed the number to 3,950,000, at the period the cenſus was taken. The increaſe ſince, on the ſuppoſition that the inhabitants of the United States double once in twenty years,

years, has been about 600,000; ſo that now there are probably 4,550,000 ſouls in the American United States.

S. What is the general conſtitution and government of theſe ſtates?

M. The United States are governed by a congreſs, conſiſting of a preſident, vice preſident, ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives. The ſenate is compoſed of two ſenators, from each ſtate, elected for ſix years; and the houſe of repreſentatives of one repreſentative, choſen every ſecond year, for every 33,000 inhabitants in each ſtate, until the number has exceeded one hundred, after which there is not to be leſs than one repreſentative for every 40,000, till the number of repreſentatives amounts to two hundred. When this takes place, the proportion between the people and their repreſentatives is to be ſo regulated by congreſs that there ſhall not be leſs than two hundred repreſentatives, nor more than one repreſentative for every 30,000 perſons. This is the ultimate limit to which the Americans as yet look forward, in the conſtitution of the general government of their union.

DIALOGUE XLIV.

NEW ENGLAND, *or the* NORTHERN *or* EASTERN STATES.

S. WHAT are the ſituation, boundaries, and extent of New England?

M. It lies between 41 and 49 degrees of north latitude, and 67 and 74 degrees of weſt longitude; being about 550 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by Nova Scotia, on the ſouth by New York, on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, and on the weſt by Canada.

S. Which of the United American States are included under the general name of New England?

M. The five following.

States.	*Chief Towns.*
Vermont, - - - - - - -	{ Windſor, Rutland
New Hampſhire, - - -	Portſmouth.
Maſſachuſetts, including the diſtrict of Maine, - -	{ Boſton, Portland.
Rhode Iſland and Providence Plantations, - -	{ Newport, Providence.
Connecticut, - - - - -	{ Hartford, New Haven.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of New England healthy?

M. It is eſteemed ſo in general. The winters are exceedingly ſevere, and the ſummers extremely hot; but the clear and ſerene temperature of the ſky, makes amends for theſe extremes.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. It differs according to the ſituation of places, being beſt to the ſouthward. Towards the north-eaſt it is mountainous and rocky, but about Maſſachuſetts bay it is as rich as in Old England.

2. *Rivers.*

S. What are the names of their principal rivers?

M. Connecticut, Merimac, Thames Piſcataway, Patuxent, Penobſcot, or Pentagonet, Caſco, Saco, and Kinebeque.

3. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are found in New England?

M. Great numbers of ſheep, and black cattle; a ſmall breed of horſes, elks, deer, hares, racoons, bears, wolves, foxes, and a particular ſpecies of deer called the moſs or mooſe deer, of which there are two ſorts, the light grey mooſe, which reſembles the common deer, and the large black mooſe, which is about the ſize of a bull.

S. Are

S. Are there any fowls remarkable?

M. The whole country abounds in all ſorts of barn-door fowl, turkeys, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, widgeons, partridges, dappers, heathcocks, flights of pigeons, which are here birds of paſſage, herons, ſtorks, blackbirds, cormorants, ravens, and crows.

S. Do the rivers and ſea abound in fiſh?

M. In the greateſt plenty, for beſides cod, which the inhabitants dry during the froſt, and export to Europe; they catch different kinds of whales, and a large fiſh called the whale-killer: there is alſo a mackerel fiſhery at the mouth of the river Penobſcot.

S. What are the vegetable productions of New England?

M. Wheat and other European corn have been cultivated with ſucceſs, and the Indian corn grows very freely. Barley and oats, however, do not arrive at very great perfection; but the inhabitants raiſe a large quantity of hemp and flax. Moſt of the fruits which grow in the mother country, are cultivated here, and the peach and apple-trees flouriſh exceedingly.

S. Is not New England famous for the variety and value of its timber?

M. Yes; its foreſts abound in oak, aſh, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypreſs beech, walnut, cheſnut, hazel, ſaſſafras, ſumach, and moſt woods which are uſed in tanning or dying of leather. The inhabitants draw from their trees vaſt quantities of pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, gums, and balm.

4. *Mines, Commerce, and Manufactures.*

S. Are there any mines in this part of America?

M. Several iron mines have been diſcovered, the metal of which proves of a moſt excellent kind and temper.

S. In what articles does the commerce of New England conſiſt?

M. In ſhips, ſloops, maſts, ſail-yards, pitch, tar, turpentine, ſtaves, lumber, boards, pig and bar iron, grain, biſcuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheeſe, apples, cyder, onions, mackerel, and dried cod; cattle, horſes, planks,

hoops, tobacco, ſhingles, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, and calves ſkins.

S. Are there any manufactures?

M. Yes, of coarſe linen and woollen cloths, ſugars, paper and hats, with which they ſupply, though in a clandeſtine manner, all the other colonies: the exportation of their manufactures being prohibited.

5. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. When, and by whom was New England ſettled?

M. By the Engliſh. Some attempts towards it had been made in the year 1608, but they did not ſucceed, and the only correſpondence carried on between England and this part of America, was by two or three of our ſhips, which traded with the Indians for furs. But in the year 1621, the non-conformiſts, who were violently perſecuted by Laud, and others, on account of their religion, reſolved to ſeek an aſylum in America. Accordingly they purchaſed the territory, which was within the juriſdiction of the Plymouth company, and the king having granted them the privilege of ſettling it in whatever manner they ſhould think moſt advantageous, a hundred and fifty perſons embarked for New England, built a town which they called Plymouth, and then began to cultivate the country, and take the beſt ſteps for the advancement of their infant colony. Theſe emigrants were followed by others, and in the year 1630, they had erected four towns, viz. Salem, Dorcheſter, Charles-Town, and Boſton. The difference of religious opinions among the inhabitants, occaſioned violent diſſenſions, and obliged them to ſeparate, ſeek new places, and ſettle new colonies. By this means the three provinces of New Hampſhire, Rhode Iſland, and Connecticut, became peopled by emigrants from the Maſſachuſett colony, which was the original ſettlement.

DIALOGUE XLV.

VERMONT.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of the ſtate of Vermont?

M. It lies between the latitudes of 42 and 44 degrees north, and 72 and 73° 30′ of weſt longitude.

S. What are the dimenſions, boundaries, and diviſions of this ſtate?

M. It is about 150 miles in length, and 70 in breadth; and is bounded, on the north by Lower Canada, on the eaſt by Connecticut river, which divides it from New Hampſhire; on the ſouth by Maſſachuſetts, and on the weſt by New York. It is naturally divided by the green mountains, from which it takes its name*, and which run from ſouth to north, and divide the ſtate nearly in the middle. Its civil diviſion is into eleven counties, as follows.

	Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Weſt of the mountains,	Bennington,	Bennington.
	Rutland,	Rutland.
	Addiſon,	Addiſon.
	Chiltendon,	Colcheſter.
	Franklin,	
	Orleans.	
Eaſt of the mountains,	Orange,	Newbury.
	Windſor,	Windſor.
	Windham,	Newfane and Putney.
	Caledonia,	
	Eſſex.	

1. *Air, Soil, and Produce.*

S. What is the nature of the air and ſoil of this ſtate?

M. The humidity and height of the Green Mountains, render the air ſeveral degrees colder than it is in the flat coun-

* From the French *Verd Mont*; Green Mountain.

try,

try. The ſoil with few exceptions is rich and loamy, and wheat, Indian corn, and other kinds of grain, grow and flouriſh luxuriantly, as ſoon as the woods are removed, without the uſe of the plough. Some of the fineſt beef-cattle in the world are driven from this ſtate; horſes alſo are raiſed for exportation.

2. *Rivers and Lakes.*

S. Which are the principal rivers of this ſtate?

M. The Michiſcouin, Lamoille, Onion, and Otter-creek. The latter is navigable for boats fifty miles, and its banks are excellent land, being annually overflowed and enriched.

S. Does it not contain ſome lakes?

M. Lake Champlain ſeparates Vermont from the ſtate of New York. Its length is about 160 miles, and its mean width about five miles. It contains three iſlands which are within the juriſdiction of Vermont. Lake Mumphramagog is about 40 miles long and nearly three miles broad.

3. *Population and Trade.*

S. What is the population of this ſtate?

M. According to the cenſus taken in 1790, it then contained 85,500 inhabitants; and it has ſince been rapidly peopling

S. What does the trade of this ſtate principally conſiſt in?

M. The articles of export are pot and pearl-aſhes, beef, horſes and grain. Vaſt quantities of pot and pearl-aſhes are made in every part of this ſtate. But one of its moſt important manufactures is that of maple-ſugar. In two towns in Orange county, containing not more than forty families, 13,000 lb. of ſugar were made in the year 1791.

4. *Religion and Learning.*

S. What is the religion of this ſtate?

M. The ſame toleration prevails in it towards the different ſects of Chriſtians as is found throughout moſt of the United States.

S. Are

S. Are there any eſtabliſhments here for the promotion of learning?

M. A charter for a richly endowed univerſity was granted by the legiſlature of this ſtate in 1791, to be eſtabliſhed at Burlington, and 33,000 acres of land have been reſerved, in the ſeveral grants made by this ſtate for the uſe of the univerſity.

5. *Hiſtorical Events, and Government.*

S. What is the hiſtory of this ſtate?

M. The tract of country called Vermont, before the late war, was claimed both by New-York and New-Hampſhire, and theſe interfering claims were the occaſion of much warm altercation, nor were they finally adjuſted till after the peace. When hoſtilities commenced between Great Britain and the colonies, the inhabitants of this diſtrict conſidering themſelves as in a ſtate of nature, and not within the juriſdiction either of New-York or New-Hampſhire, aſſociated and formed a conſtitution for themſelves. On the 4th of March 1791, agreeably to act of congreſs of Dec. 6th, 1790, this ſtate became one of the United States.

S. What is the preſent conſtitution of Vermont?

M. The legiſlature conſiſts of a houſe of repreſentatives and a council of twelve beſides the governor, who is preſident, and the lieutenant governor, who is officially a member. The freemen meet annually in their ſeveral towns to chooſe the governor, counſellors, and other magiſtrates, and to the privilege of voting all males, twenty-one years old, and of peaceable diſpoſitions are entitled, after taking the oath of fidelity to the ſtate.

6. *Chief Towns.*

S. What are the principal towns in the ſtate of Vermont?

M. Bennington, ſituated near the ſouth-weſt corner of the ſtate, is one of the largeſt. It contains about 2,400 inhabitants, a number of handſome houſes, a congregational church, a court-houſe and gaol.

Windſor and Rutland by a late act of the legiſlature are alternately to be the ſeat of government for eight years. The former is ſituated on Connecticut river, and contains about

about 1,600 inhabitants; the latter lies upon Otter-creek, and contains upwards of 1,400 inhabitants. Both are flouriſhing towns.

DIALOGUE XLVI.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of the ſtate of New Hampſhire?

M. It lies between the latitudes of 42°. 40′ and 45°. 11′ north, and between 70°. 40′ and 72°. 28′ of weſt longitude.

S. What are the dimenſions, boundaries and diviſions of this ſtate?

M. It is about 168 miles in length; its greateſt breadth is 90 and its leaſt 19 miles; and it contains 9,491 ſquare miles. It is bounded on the north by Lower Canada; on the eaſt by the diſtrict of Maine, on the ſouth by Maſſachuſetts; and on the weſt by Connecticut river, which ſeparates it from Vermont. It is divided into five counties.

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Rockingham,	Portſmouth and Concord.
Strafford,	Dover.
Cheſhire,	Cheſhire.
Hilliſborough,	Amherſt.
Grafton.	Grafton.

1. *Air, Soil, and Produce.*

S. Is the air of New Hampſhire healthful?

M. It is; and the weather is commonly ſerene, and not ſo ſubject to variation as in ſome of the more ſouthern ſtates. In ſummer the heat is great, but of ſhort duration.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil in this ſtate?

M. It is various: in ſome places ſandy, but generally affording good paſture; other parts are a rich deep mould, producing corn and vegetables in great plenty.

S. What are its principal productions?

M. The

M. The animals here are nearly the ſame as in the other northern ſtates of America. Apples and pears are the principal fruits of New Hampſhire. Several kinds of earths and clays are found here. Cryſtals have been diſcovered in ſome parts. Iron ore is found in many places, and black lead in Jaffray. Some lead and copper ore has been ſeen; but iron is the only metal which has been wrought to any advantage.

2. *Rivers, Lakes, and Mountains.*

S. Which are the principal rivers in New Hampſhire?

M. The Connecticut, Merrimack, Piſcataqua, Saco, Androſcoggin, and Upper and Lower Amanooſuck.

S. What are the names of the principal lakes?

M. Winnipiſcogee, Umbagog, Sunapee, Squam, and great Oſſipee.

S. Are there not ſome high mountains in this ſtate?

M. New Hampſhire is interſected by ſeveral ridges of mountains; as the Blue Hills, and the mountains denominated the *Height of Land*. But the White Mountains, which run through this ſtate are undoubtedly the higheſt in all New England. Their height above an adjacent meadow is 5,500 feet; and the meadow is 2,500 feet above the level of the ſea. They are almoſt continually covered with ſnow and ice, whence they have received their name of White Mountains. Though they are 70 miles inland, they may be ſeen many leagues off at ſea. One of their loftieſt ſummits which makes a majeſtic appearance along the ſhore of Maſſachuſetts, has lately been diſtinguiſhed by the name of Mount Waſhington.

3. *Population and Trade.*

S. What is the population of New Hampſhire?

M. According to the cenſus taken by order of congreſs in 1790, the number of inhabitants was 141,085; they have ſince, there can be no doubt, greatly increaſed.

S. In what does the trade of this ſtate conſiſt?

M. Though New Hampſhire is not to be ranked among the great commercial ſtates, yet its trade is conſiderable. Its exports conſiſt in ſhip-timber, whale-oil, flax-ſeed, beef, pork,

pork, Indian-corn, pot and pearl-aſhes, and various other commodities. The value of theſe exports in 1793 amounted to 198,197 dollars.

4. *College and Academies.*

S. Are there any colleges or other ſeminaries of learning in New-Hampſhire?

M. The only college in this ſtate is at Hanover, called Dartmouth College, which is amply endowed with lands, and is in a flouriſhing ſituation. The principal academies are thoſe of Exeter, New-Ipſwich, Atkinſon and Amherſt.

5. *Hiſtorical Events, and Government.*

S. When was New-Hampſhire ſettled?

M. It firſt began to be ſettled about the year 1629, and was erected into a ſeparate government in the year 1679; but ſeems afterwards to have been under the ſame government with Maſſachuſetts; becauſe New-Hampſhire complained to the king in council, againſt the joint governor, relative to the boundaries between the two colonies, and on hearing the complaint a ſeparate governor was appointed in 1740.

S. What is the preſent conſtitution of this ſtate?

M. Like the other United States, the legiſlative power reſides in a ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives, which together are here ſtyled the general court, and the ſupreme executive authority is veſted in a governor and council, the latter conſiſting of five members.

6. *Chief Towns.*

S. Which are the principal towns of New-Hampſhire?

M. Portſmouth is the metropolis, and the largeſt town in the ſtate. Its harbour is one of the fineſt on the continent, and is ſo well fortified by nature that very little art would be neceſſary to render it impregnable. Concord is a very flouriſhing town, pleaſantly ſituated on the Merrimack river. The legiſlature of late have commonly held their ſeſſions here, and from its central ſituation, and a thriving

thriving back country, it will probably become the permanent ſeat of government.

DIALOGUE XLVII.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Including the DISTRICT *of* MAINE.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts?

M. Maſſachuſetts Proper (which with the diſtrict of Maine conſtitutes) one of the United States of America, is ſituated between lat. 41. 13. and 43. 52 north, and between long. 69. 57, and 73. 38 weſt.

S. What are its boundaries and extent?

M. Its greateſt length is 190 miles, and its greateſt breadth 90. It is bounded on the north by Vermont, and New-Hampſhire; on the eaſt by the Atlantic Ocean; on the ſouth by the Atlantic, Rhode Iſland, and Connecticut, and on the weſt by New-York.

S. What are the ſituation, dimenſions, and boundaries of the diſtrict of Maine?

M. It is ſituated between lat. 43° and 48°. 15′ north, and between 64°. 53′, and 70°. 39′ weſt. It is 200 miles in length and the ſame in breadth; and it is bounded on the north by Lower Canada, on the eaſt by the province of New Brunſwick, on the ſouth by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the weſt by New-Hampſhire.

S. How is this ſtate divided?

M. Into the following ſeventeen counties.

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Suffolk, - - - - -	Boſton.
Norfolk, - - - - -	Dedham.
Eſſex, - - - - -	Salem.
Middleſex, - - - - -	Charleſtown.
Hampſhire, - - - - -	Northampton.
Worceſter, - - - - -	Worceſter.
Plymouth, - - - - -	Plymouth.

Counties,

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Barnſtable, - - - - - -	Barnſtable.
Duke's County, - - - - -	Edgarton.
Nantucket, - - - - - -	Nantucket.
Briſtol, - - - - - -	Taunton.
Berkſhire. - - - - - -	Stockbridge.

Diſtrict of Maine.

York, - - - - - -	York.
Cumberland, - - - - - -	Portland.
Lincoln, - - - - - -	Pownalborough.
Hancock, - - - - - -	Hancock.
Waſhington. - - - - - -	Machias.

1. *Air, Soil, and Produce.*

S. Is the air of Maſſachuſetts healthy?

M. It is: the climate is ſimilar to that of the other northern ſtates. In the diſtrict of Maine, the heat in ſummer is intenſe and the cold in winter extreme.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. In Maſſachuſetts are to be found every variety of ſoil, from very good to very bad. The northern, middle, and weſtern parts of the ſtate, have, generally ſpeaking, a ſtrong, good ſoil, capable of yielding all the productions common to the climate.

S. What is the produce of this ſtate?

M. Indian-corn, wheat, hemp, flax, as alſo copper and iron.

2. *Rivers, Bays, and Iſlands.*

S. What are the principal rivers, bays, and iſlands in Maſſachuſetts?

M. The country is well watered by a number of ſmall rivers, of which the principal are Myſtic and Charles rivers. The chief bays are Maſſachuſetts, Ipſwich, Boſton, Plymouth, and Barnſtable; the principal iſlands are Plumb Iſland, Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, and Elizabeth.

3. *Population*

3. *Population and Trade.*

S. What is the population of Maſſachuſetts?

M. It amounts to 378,787 ſouls, or about 60 for every ſquare mile.

S. Is the trade of Maſſachuſetts conſiderable?

M. It is very conſiderable: this ſtate owns more than three times as many tons of ſhipping as any other of the ſtates; and more than one third part of the whole that belongs to the United States. The exports from this ſtate conſiſting of pot and pearl-aſhes, ſtaves, flax-ſeed, bees-wax, various manufactures, &c. amounted in 1794, to 5,380,703 dollars.

4. *Religion and Academy.*

S. What is the religion of Maſſachuſetts?

M. There is no eſtabliſhed religion, but every ſect of chriſtians is allowed the free exerciſe of its religion, and is equally under the protection of the laws.

S. Is there any college or academy in Maſſachuſetts?

M. In May 1780, the council and houſe of repreſentatives of Maſſachuſetts, paſſed an act for incorporating and eſtabliſhing a ſociety for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and ſciences. It is entitled the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. The firſt members were named in the act, and were never to be more than two hundred, nor leſs than forty.

5. *Hiſtorical Events, and Government.*

S. When and by whom was Maſſachuſetts firſt ſettled?

M. Maſſachuſetts and New England in general owes its firſt ſettlement to the non-conformiſts or puritans, who were driven from England by religious perſecution about the year 1620. By 1630, they had built four towns, Plymouth, where they firſt landed, Salem, Charles-town, and Boſton. They continued to be governed by a governor appointed by Great Britain till the American war, when they became an independant ſtate.

S. What is the preſent conſtitution and government of this ſtate?

M. Nearly the ſame with that of the other United States. The legiſlature of Maſſachuſetts conſiſts of a ſenate, and houſe of repreſentatives, who together with the governor and lieutenant governor are elected annually by the people. In 1778, the negro trade was aboliſhed by the legiſlature, and there is not a ſingle ſlave in the commonwealth. This is the only ſtate in the Union in which there are no ſlaves.

6. *Principal Towns.*

S. Which are the principal towns of Maſſachuſetts?

M. Boſton, Salem, Plymouth, and Portland.

Boſton is the capital of this ſtate, the largeſt town in New England, and the third in ſize and rank in the United States. It is built on a peninſula of irregular form at the bottom of Maſſachuſetts bay, and is joined to the main land by an iſthmus on the ſouth end of the town. It is two miles long, but of unequal breadth: the broadeſt part is 726 yards. In 1790, it contained 2376 dwelling houſes, and 18,038 inhabitants; but the increaſe has been very conſiderable ſince. The harbour is capacious enough for five hundred veſſels to ride at anchor in good depth of water, while the entrance is ſo narrow as ſcarcely to admit two ſhips abreaſt. At the bottom of the bay is a pier, near 2,000 feet in length, to which ſhips of the greateſt burden may come cloſe. The view of the town as it is approached from the ſea is highly beautiful and picturesque.

Salem is the ſecond town in this ſtate, and contains above 900 houſes and 8000 inhabitants. It is a very commercial place, and is connected with Beverly by Eſſex bridge, upwards of 1500 feet in length; erected in 1789. The harbour is defended by a fort and citadel.

Plymouth was the firſt town built in New England, and is peopled principally by the deſcendants of the firſt ſettlers. The rock on which their forefathers landed was conveyed in 1774, from the ſhore to a ſquare in the center of the town, where it remains as a monument. The ſituation of the town is pleaſant and healthful.

Portland is the capital of the diſtrict of Maine. It has a moſt excellent, ſafe, and capacious harbour, and is one of the moſt thriving commercial towns in the commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts. It contains about 2300 inhabitants. In 1795, a fort, a citadel, and a battery of ten pieces of cannon were erected for its defence.

DIALOGUE XLVIII.

RHODE ISLAND.

S. WHAT are the dimenſions, and boundaries, of the ſtate of Rhode Iſland?

M. Rhode Iſland is the ſmalleſt of the United States, its greateſt length being 47 miles, and its greateſt breadth 37. It is bounded on the north and eaſt by the commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts; on the ſouth by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the weſt by Connecticut. Theſe limits comprehend what is called *Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantations*. The iſland is about thirteen miles long, and four broad, and lies in lat. 41. 25 north, lon. 71. 20 weſt.

S. How is this ſtate divided?

M. Into the five following counties.

Counties.	*Towns.*
Newport, - - - -	Newport.
Providence, - - - -	Providence.
Waſhington, - - - -	South Kingſton.
Briſtol, - - - -	Briſtol.
Kent. - - - -	

1. *Air, Soil, and Produce.*

S. What is the nature of the air, climate, and ſoil of this ſtate?

M. Perhaps no country in the world excels Rhode Iſland in the ſalubrity and mildneſs of the climate, or the productiveneſs of the ſoil. In its moſt flouriſhing ſtate it was

called by travellers the Eden of America. The winters are mild and the ſummers delightful.

S. What are the productions of this ſtate?

M. Wheat, rye, barley, and oats: ſome of the fineſt neat cattle are raiſed here. Iron ore is found in great plenty in ſeveral parts, as is likewiſe abundance of lime ſtone.

2. *Population and Trade.*

S. What is the population of the ſtate of Rhode Iſland?

M. In 1790, it contained 68,825 inhabitants, of whom 948 were ſlaves.

S. In what does the trade of Rhode Iſland conſiſt?

M. The exports from this ſtate are horſes, cattle, beef, pork, barley, flax-ſeed, butter, cheeſe, cotton, and linen goods. The amount of theſe in 1794. was 954,573 dollars. Upwards of 600 veſſels enter and clear annually from the ſtate.

3. *Religion and College.*

S. What is the religion of Rhode Iſland?

M. As in the other ſtates. all the different ſects of chriſtianity are tolerated, and liberty of conſcience inviolably maintained. So little has the civil authority to do with religion here, that no contract between a miniſter and a ſociety (unleſs incorporated for that purpoſe) is of any force. A great number of different ſects are found here, and the ſabbath, and all religious inſtitutions, are more neglected in this than in any other of the New England ſtates.

S. Is there any ſeminary for learning in this ſtate?

M. A college called Rhode Iſland college, is eſtabliſhed at Providence. It is a ſpacious edifice, and contains upwards of ſixty ſtudents. It has a library containing between 2 and 3,000 volumes, and a valuable philoſophical apparatus.

4. *Hiſtorical Events, and Government.*

S. By whom was Rhode Iſland firſt ſettled?

M. This ſtate was firſt ſettled from Maſſachuſetts, Mr. Roger Williams, a miniſter, who came over to New England

land in 1631, was charged with holding a variety of errors, and was on that account, in 1636, forced to leave his houſe, land, wife, and children, at Salem, in the dead of winter, and ſeek a reſidence without the limits of Maſſachuſetts. Accordingly he and four others croſſed Seekhonk river, and went among the Indians, by whom they were hoſpitably received, and thus laid the foundation of a town, which he called *Providence*. Here he was ſoon after joined by others; and in 1643, Mr. Williams went to England, and obtained a charter of incorporation; under which the colony remained till the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663.

S. What is the preſent conſtitution and government of this ſtate?

M. It is founded on the charter of Charles II. and the form of government was not eſſentially altered by the revolution. The legiſlature conſiſts of two branches, a ſenate, or upper houſe compoſed of ten members, beſides the governor, and deputy-governor, called in the charter *aſſiſtants*, and a houſe of repreſentatives compoſed of deputies from the ſeveral towns. The governor, and deputy-governor are choſen annually; and the members of the legiſlature twice a year.

5. *Chief Towns.*

S. Which are the principal towns in the ſtate of Rhode Iſland?

M. Providence and Newport. The former is ſituated at the head of Narraganſet bay, on both ſides of Providence river, over which is a bridge 160 feet long, and 22 wide. It is a large and handſome town, containing ſeveral elegant buildings, and about 6,400 inhabitants.

Newport is ſituated at the ſouth-weſt end of Rhode Iſland, about five miles from the ſea. The harbour (which is one of the fineſt in the world) ſpreads weſtward before the town. The entrance is eaſy and ſafe, and a large fleet may anchor in it, and ride in perfect ſecurity. Newport contains about 1,000 houſes.

DIALOGUE XLIX.

CONNECTICUT.

S. WHAT are the boundaries, and dimenſions, of the ſtate of Connecticut?

M. Connecticut is bounded on the north by Maſſachuſetts; on the eaſt by Rhode Iſland; on the ſouth by the ſound which divides it from Long Iſland; and on the weſt by the ſtate of New-York. Its length is 100 miles, and its greateſt breadth 72 miles. extending from 71. 20 to 73. 15 of weſt longitude, and from 41. 0 to 42. 2 of north latitude.

1. *Air, Soil, and Produce.*

S. Is the air of Connecticut healthful?

M. It is; though the climate is ſubject to the extremes of heat and cold, in their ſeaſons; and to frequent ſudden changes.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil, and produce of this ſtate?

M. The ſoil is very well calculated for paſturage and ſowing; which enables the farmers to feed large numbers of neat cattle and horſes.

The principal productions of Connecticut, are Indian corn, rye, wheat; in many parts of the ſtate, oats, and barley; flax, hemp, and all kinds of fruits common to the climate.

2. *Rivers and Bays.*

S. What are the principal rivers and bays in Connecticut?

M. The principal rivers are, the Connecticut, Houſatonick, Thames, and their branches. The whole of the ſea-coaſt is indented with harbours, many of which are ſafe and commodious; but thoſe of New London, and New Haven, are the moſt important.

3. *Population*

3. *Population and Commerce.*

S. What is the population of Connecticut?

M. The number of inhabitants in 1790 amounted to 237,946 perſons, of whom 2764 were ſlaves.

S. In what does the trade of this ſtate conſiſt?

M. The trade of Connecticut is principally with the Weſt-India iſlands. The exports conſiſt of horſes, mules, oxen, oak-ſtaves, hoops, pine boards, and plank, beans, Indian-corn, fiſh, beef, pork, &c. The value of theſe exports during the year 1794, amounted to 806,716 dollars.

4. *Religion and Learning.*

S. What is the prevailing religion in this ſtate?

M. All religions that are conſiſtent with the peace of ſociety are tolerated in Connecticut; and a ſpirit of liberality and catholiciſm is increaſing. There are very few religious ſects in this ſtate. The bulk of the people are Congregationaliſts; and there are beſides Epiſcopalians and Baptiſts.

S. What is the ſtate of learning in Connecticut?

M. In no part of the world is the education of all ranks of people more attended to: almoſt every town in the ſtate is divided into diſtricts, and each diſtrict has a public ſchool. The law directs, that a grammar ſchool ſhall be kept in every county town throughout the ſtate.

Yale College at New Haven is an eminent ſeminary of learning. It was founded in the year 1700. It has a public library of about 3,000 volumes; and a very complete philoſophical apparatus.

5. *Hiſtorical Events, and Government.*

S. When was Connecticut firſt ſettled?

M. The firſt grant of Connecticut was made by the Plymouth council to the Earl of Warwick, in 1630. The year following the Earl aſſigned this grant to Lord Say and Seal, Lord Brook, and nine others, and in 1644, the Connecticut adventurers purchaſed of Mr. Fenwick, agent for Lord Say and Seal, and Lord Brook, their right to the colony for 1600l. Connecticut and New Haven continued two diſtinct go-

vernments for many years. At length John Winthrop, Esq. was chosen to solicit a royal charter, which was granted by Charles II. in 1662, constituting the two colonies one body corporate and politic; and this charter still continues to be the basis of their government.

S. What is the present constitution and government of this state?

M. The supreme legislative authority of the state is vested in a governor, deputy governor, and twelve assistants or counsellors, who are chosen annually by the freemen; and the representatives, whose number is not to exceed two from each town, and who are chosen twice a year. The governor, deputy governor, and assistants compose the upper house, and the representatives of the people the lower. These two constitute the General Assembly, and no law can pass without their concurrence.

DIALOGUE L.

NEW YORK.

S. WHAT is the situation of the state of New York?

M. It is situated between 40°. 40′ and 45 degrees of north latitude, and between 73°. 10′ and 80 degrees of west longitude.

S. What are its dimensions and boundaries?

M. It is about 350 miles in length, and 200 miles in breadth; and is bounded, on the north by Canada, the boundary of which is the parallel of the 45th degree of latitude; on the east by Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Vermont; on the south-east by the Atlantic, on the south and south-west by New Jersey and Pennsylvania; and on the north-west by the river St. Laurence and lake Ontario.

S. How is this state divided?

M. Into the following 21 counties.

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
NEW YORK, - - - - -	NEW YORK.
Albany, - - - - -	Albany.
Ulster, - - - - -	Kingston.

Counties.

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Ducheſs,	Poughkeepſie.
Orange,	Orange.
Weſt Cheſter,	Bedford, White Plains.
King's,	Flatbuſh, Brooklyn.
Queen's,	Jamaica.
Suffolk,	Eaſt Hampton, Huntingdon.
Richmond,	Richmond.
Waſhington,	Salem.
Columbia,	Hudſon, Kinderhook.
Clinton,	Platſburg.
Montgomery,	Johnſtown.
Ranſelaer,	Lanrinburg.
Ontario,	Canadaque.
Herkemer,	German Flats.
Orſego,	Cooper's Town.
Tioga,	Chemango, Union Town.
Saratoga,	Saratoga.
Onondago,	None.

1. *Air, Soil, Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. Is the air and ſoil of New York healthy and fruitful?

M. They are: it lies to the ſouth of the New England ſtates, and conſequently enjoys a more temperate climate. The ſoil is exceedingly fertile, and well rewards the labours of the planter.

S. What animals are found in this colony?

M. The ſame I have already mentioned in deſcribing the other parts of America.

S. Are there any vegetables that deſerve deſcription?

M. The ſoil is extremely favourable to the different ſpecies of corn and plants of Europe; moſt of which are produced here in the utmoſt perfection, and in the greateſt plenty.

2. *Rivers and Lakes.*

S. Which are the principal rivers of New York?

M. The Hudſon, the Mohawk, and their branches. The rivers Delaware and Suſquehannah riſe in this ſtate.

S. Are there any lakes?

M. Yes; the Otſego, Oneida, George, Seneca, Cayuga, Salt, and Chautaughque.

3. *Population and Commerce.*

S. What is the population of New York?

M. In 1790, according to the cenſus then taken, the number of inhabitants amounted to 340,120 of whom 21,324 were ſlaves.

S. Is the trade of New York conſiderable?

M. The ſituation of New York with reſpect to foreign markets has decidedly the preference to that of any of the ſtates. It has at all ſeaſons of the year a ſhort and eaſy acceſs to the ocean; and commands the trade of a great proportion of the beſt ſettled, and beſt cultivated parts of the United States. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef and other kinds of animal food; but wheat is the ſtaple commodity of the ſtate, of which, and flour, about a million buſhels are now annually exported. A variety of articles are likewiſe imported for re-exportation. The exports from this ſtate in 1791 amounted to two millions and a half of dollars, and in 1795 to more than ten millions, or above two millions ſterling.

4. *Religion and Learning.*

S. What is the prevailing religion in this ſtate?

M. Every religion has full toleration. It is ordained by the conſtitution of New York, that the free exerciſe and enjoyment of religious profeſſion and worſhip, without diſcrimination or preference, ſhall for ever be allowed within that ſtate to all mankind.

S. What eſtabliſhments for the promotion of learning are there in New York?

M. There are in this ſtate two handſomely endowed and flouriſhing colleges, viz. Columbia, formerly King's College, in the city of New York, and Union College at Schenectady. Beſides theſe there are diſperſed in different parts of the ſtate, 14 incorporated academies, containing in the whole as many as 6 or 700 ſtudents. It is alſo provided that

that ſchools ſhall be eſtabliſhed, one, at leaſt, in every diſtrict of four ſquare miles.

5. *Principal Towns.*

S. What are the principal towns in the ſtate of New York?

M. New York, Albany, and Hudſon.

New York is built on the ſouth-weſt extremity of an iſland of the ſame name, about twelve miles in length, and three in breadth. The ſituation is remarkably adapted to trade, being at the mouth of Hudſon's River, which is near three miles broad at this place. The city itſelf is about two miles in length, and a mile in breadth; and, though irregularly built, affords a very fine proſpect, many of the houſes being very elegant. The moſt magnificent edifice in this city is the Federal Hall, ſituate at the head of Broad-ſtreet, where the front appears to great advantage. There is beſides an elegant brick building for the uſe of the governor, where the fort formerly ſtood; with a public walk, occupying the ground of a battery now demoliſhed. There is alſo a college, three Epiſcopal churches, ſeveral meeting houſes, a Roman Catholic church, a French Proteſtant church, and a Jew's ſynagogue. The greateſt part of the inhabitants, who are computed at between twelve and fifteen thouſand, are deſcended from Dutch families, who choſe to remain there after the ſurrender of the New Netherlands to the Engliſh. In general the better ſort are wealthy and hoſpitable, the lower claſs eaſy in their ſtation, and both naturally poſſeſs a generous and liberal turn of mind, which renders their ſociety and converſation more agreeable than that of the inhabitants in moſt countries either of Europe or America. The government of New York (which was incorporated in 1796), is now veſted in a mayor, aldermen, and common council.

Albany is ſituated a hundred and forty-three miles north of the city of New York, and about five below the place where Hudſon's River divides into two branches. It was called Orange Fort, by the Dutch, but after the reduction of it by the Engliſh, they gave it its preſent appellation, in compliment to the duke of York, it being his Scotch title. It contains about 6,000 inhabitants, is ſituated on one of

the fineſt rivers in the world, ſurrounded with a rich and extenſive back-country, and is the natural emporium of the increaſing trade of a large extent of country.

The city of Hudſon is, however, its great rival, and has had the moſt rapid increaſe of any place in America, if we except Baltimore in Maryland. It is 130 miles north of New York. It was not begun till the autumn of 1783.

6. *Hiſtorical Events, and Form of Government.*

S. By what nation was New York firſt ſettled?

M. The Swedes and Dutch firſt formed ſettlements in New York and the Jerſeys, who kept poſſeſſion of them till the reign of Charles II. when they were ceded to England at the peace of Breda, in 1667. Till this period they were called the New Netherlands; but the Engliſh divided them into provinces. Part was granted to the duke of York, and from thence it derives its preſent appellation.

S. What is the preſent conſtitution and form of government of New York?

M. The ſupreme legiſlative power is veſted in two ſeparate and diſtinct bodies; the one called the aſſembly of the ſenate of New York, conſiſting of ſeventy members, annually choſen by ballot; and the other, the ſenate of the ſtate of New York, conſiſting of twenty-four, choſen for four years, who together form the legiſlature, and meet once at leaſt in every year for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſupreme executive power is veſted in a governor, who continues in office three years, aſſiſted by four counſellors choſen by and from the ſenate.

DIALOGUE LI.

NEW JERSEY.

S. WHAT are the ſituation, extent, and boundaries of New Jerſey?

M. New Jerſey is ſituated between 39 and 42 degrees of north latitude; and 74 and 76 degrees of weſt longitude: it is 150 miles in length and 50 in breadth, and is bounded on

on the north by New York, on the eaſt by Hudſon's river and the Atlantic Ocean, on the ſouth by Delaware bay, and on the weſt by Pennſylvania.

S. How is it divided?

M. Into thirteen counties.

Diviſions.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns*
Eaſt diviſion,	Middleſex,	Perth Amboy, and New Brunſwick.
	Monmouth,	Shrewſbury & Freehold.
	Eſſex,	Elizabeth and Newark.
	Somerſet,	Boundbrook.
	Bergen,	Hakkenſak.
Weſt diviſion,	Burlington,	Burlington.
	Glouceſter,	Woodbury & Glouceſter.
	Salem,	Salem.
	Cumberland,	Hopewell Bridgetown.
	Cape May,	None.
	Hunterdon,	Trenton.
	Morris,	Morriſtown.
	Suſſex,	New-town.

1. *Climate, Soil, and Produce.*

S. What is the nature of the climate and ſoil, and what the produce of this ſtate?

M. The climate is much the ſame with that of New York. The ſoil is various; at leaſt one fourth part of the country is barren ſandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, and Indian-corn in great perfection.

2. *Rivers.*

S. Which are the principal rivers in New Jerſey?

M. The Delaware, Raritan, and Paſſaick, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract. The height of the rock, from which the water falls, is above ſeventy-feet perpendicular; and the river there is eighty-yards broad.

3. *Population,*

3. *Population, Trade, and Manufactures.*

S. What is the population of New Jerſey?

M. The number of inhabitants in 1790, was 184,139 of whom 11,423 were negro-ſlaves.

S. In what does the trade of this ſtate conſiſt?

M. The markets of New York and Philadelphia receive a very conſiderable proportion of their ſupplies from the contiguous parts of New Jerſey. Manufactures have here hitherto been inconſiderable, not ſufficient to ſupply its own conſumption, if we except the articles of iron, nails, and leather; but a ſpirit of induſtry and improvement has of late greatly increaſed.

4. *Religion and Learning.*

S. What is the prevailing religion in New Jerſey?

M. The moſt numerous religious ſect is the Preſbyterian; but there is the moſt complete toleration of every kind of religious worſhip.

S. What eſtabliſhments are there for the advancement of learning?

M. There is a college at Prince town, called Naſſau-hall; another at Brunſwick called Queen's college; beſides a number of academies in other places.

5. *Chief Towns.*

S. Which are the principal towns in New Jerſey?

M. Perth Amboy and Burlington were formerly the ſeats of government: the governor generally reſided in the latter, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the fine river Delaware, within twenty miles of Philadelphia. The former has an excellent and ſafe harbour, capacious enough to contain many large ſhips: but the town is by no means in a flouriſhing ſtate. Trenton is the preſent capital where the legiſlature ſtatedly meets, the ſupreme court ſits, and moſt of the public offices are kept. It contains about 2,000 inhabitants.

6. *Hiſtorical Events, and Government.*

S. When and by whom was the firſt ſettlement of New Jerſey made?

M. This country is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered by Captain Hudſon, an Engliſhman; but the Swedes were the earlieſt ſettlers. It was afterwards ſeized by the Dutch and made a part of New Belgium. Being ceded with New York to England. Charles II. granted it to his brother James duke of York, by whom it was made over to lord Berkley, and Sir George Carteret, (from which it received its preſent name, becauſe Sir George had eſtates in the iſland of Jerſey). Lord Berkley reſigned his right to Penn and others, and Carteret divided the country with them by a ſtraight line from north to ſouth. At the death of Carteret, his ſhare was ſold and divided among a number of perſons, which occaſioned diſputes and quarrels. In the year 1702, the owners ſurrendered up their charter to the crown, and the country was united to the government of New York; but in the year 1706, it was made a ſeparate government.

S. What is the preſent conſtitution and government of New Jerſey?

M. The government of New Jerſey is veſted in a governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly; all to be elected annually; the governor and lieutenant governor to be choſen out of and by the aſſembly and council.

DIALOGUE LII.

PENNSYLVANIA.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Pennſylvania?

M. It lies between 39 and 42 degrees of north latitude, and 74 and 80 degrees of weſt longitude; being about 288 miles in length, and 156 in breadth.

S. What are its boundaries and diviſions?

M. It is bounded on the north by New York and lake Erie, on which there is a good port; on the eaſt by Delaware

laware-river, which ſeparates it from New Jerſey; on the ſouth by a part of Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware; and on the weſt by the North Weſtern Territory, and a part of Virginia. It is divided into twenty-three counties as follows.

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Philadelphia,	Philadelphia.
Cheſter,	Cheſter.
Bucks,	New-town.
Berks,	Reading.
Northampton,	Eaſton.
Lancaſter,	Lancaſter.
York,	York.
Cumberland,	Carliſle.
Montgomery,	Norriſton.
Dauphin,	Louiſburg.
Luzerne,	Wilkſborough.
Northumberland,	Sunbury.
Franklin,	Chamberſtown.
Huntingdon,	Huntingdon.
Weſtmoreland,	Greenſburg.
Fayette,	Union.
Waſhington,	Waſhington.
Allegany,	Pittſburg.
Delaware,	Cheſter.
Mifflin,	Lewiſton.
Somerſet,	None.
Lycoming,	None.
Bedford,	None.

1. *Air, Soil, and Produce.*

S. Is the air of Pennſylvania ſalutary?

M. Yes: but the winters are exceedingly cold, and the ſummers intenſely hot.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. Very fertile. The vegetable productions are the ſame with thoſe of New York, and the ſame may be ſaid of the animal.

2. *Rivers.*

S. Which are the principal rivers in Pennſylvania?

M. There are ſix conſiderable rivers, which with their numerous branches peninſulate the whole ſtate: the Delaware, Schuylkill, Suſquehannah, Youghiogany, Mononga-hela, and Alleghany.

3. *Population, Trade, and Manufactures.*

S. What is the number of inhabitants in Pennſylvania?

M. According to the cenſus of 1790, they amounted to 434,373 including 3,737 ſlaves: but the immigration of foreigners has ſince been ſo conſiderable, that the number is probably much increaſed.

S. In what articles does the commerce of Pennſylvania conſiſt?

M. There are extenſive iron works, the products of which increaſe in quantity and improve in quality. There are beſides manufactures of leather, paper, cotton, gun-powder, copper, lead, tin, and earthen-wares.

The value of the exports from this ſtate in 1792, was 3,820,662 dollars, and in 1795, 11,518,250 dollars.

4. *Religion and Learning.*

S. What is the profeſſed religion of Pennſylvania?

M. Numbers of the inhabitants are Quakers, which was the religion of Penn, the founder of this colony, but chriſtians of all denominations are not only tolerated, but have a ſhare in the government.

S. What ſeminaries are there for the encouragement of learning?

M. There is a univerſity at Philadelphia, and colleges at Carliſle and Lancaſter: there are alſo academies at York-town, German-town, Pittſburg, Waſhington, Allen's-town, and other places, all liberally endowed by the legiſlature, and the contributions of individuals.

5. *Principal*

5. *Principal Towns.*

S. What are the principal towns of Pennſylvania?

M. Philadelphia, Lancaſter, Carliſle, and Pittſburg; but Philadelphia, the capital, and the preſent metropolis of the United States, merits particular attention. I have already ſaid, that this capital was planned by the great Penn himſelf. It now contains upwards of 55,000 inhabitants, is beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity ſuperior to any in Europe. It is ſituated 100 miles from the ſea, between two navigable rivers, the Delaware on the north, and the Schuylkill on the ſouth. Theſe two ſtreams are, if I may uſe the expreſſion, united by the town, which extends two miles between them. According to the original plan, there is at each corner of the city a ſquare of eight acres; and nearly in the center of it is a ſquare of ten acres, ſurrounded by the ſtate-houſe, and other public buildings. Broad-ſtreet is one hundred feet wide, and extends the whole breadth of the town. Parallel to it run twenty-three other ſtreets, which are croſſed by nine more at right-angles; all of them thirty feet wide. According to the original plan, every man poſſeſſed of 1000 acres in the province, had his houſe either in one of the fronts facing the rivers, or in the high ſtreet, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Every owner of 5000 acres, beſides the above privilege, was entitled to an acre of ground in the front of his houſe; and all others half an acre for gardens and court-yards. The ſtate-houſe is a magnificent building, erected in 1735. In 1787, an elegant court-houſe was built, on the left of the ſtate-houſe; and, on the right, a philoſophical-hall. Here, likewiſe, is a public obſervatory, and ſeveral other public buildings.

Lancaſter is the largeſt inland town in the United States, and contains about 5,000 inhabitants. Carliſle contains about 1500 inhabitants. Here is a college, the reputation of which is daily increaſing. Pittſburg contains about 1500 inhabitants: it was laid out on Penn's plan in 1785, and is rapidly enlarging.

6. *Hiſtorial Events, and Government.*

S. When, and by whom was Pennſylvania ſettled?

M. By Mr. William Penn, a quaker, whoſe father, admiral Penn, had obtained a grant of the land from Charles II. Mr. Penn, poſſeſſing the moſt refined ideas of juſtice, did not however make uſe of his patent for ſeizing of lands, but purchaſed them from the natives, whom he looked upon as the original proprietors. The colony was ſoon in a flouriſhing condition, for the moſt perfect freedom, both in religious and civil affairs, being the baſis on which it was eſtabliſhed, people of all perſuaſions, if chriſtians, flocked from moſt parts of Europe and ſettled there. Mr. Penn had the ſatisfaction, before he died, of accompliſhing the arduous taſk he had undertaken; and the country which his wiſdom had brought to ſuch perfection, was called after his name.

S. What is the form of government in Pennſylvania?

M. According to the conſtitution of this ſtate, the legiſlative power is adminiſtered by a ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives; the executive by a governor; and the judiciary by a ſupreme court, a court of common pleas, and a court of quarter-ſeſſions of the peace. The legiſlature and governor are elected by the freemen; the governor for three years: the repreſentatives, and a fourth part of the ſenate, annually.

DIALOGUE LIII.

DELAWARE.

S. WHAT are the ſituation, extent, and boundaries of the ſtate of Delaware?

M. It is ſituated between 38°, 30′ and 40 degrees of north latitude, and 75 and 76 of weſt longitude: it is 92 miles long, and 24 broad; and is bounded on the north by Pennſylvania, on the eaſt by Delaware river and bay, and on the ſouth and weſt by Maryland.

S. How is it divided?

M. Into the three following counties:

Counties.

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Newcaſtle, - - -	Newcaſtle, Wilmington.
Kent, - - -	Dover.
Suſſex, - - -	Lewes.

1. *Air, Soil, and Produce.*

S. What is the nature of the air and ſoil of Delaware?

M. The air is in general healthy; but in ſome parts where there are large quantities of ſtagnant waters, it is leſs ſalubrious. The ſoil along the Delaware river, and from 8 to 10 miles into the interior country, is generally a rich clay, adapted to the various purpoſes of agriculture. From thence to the ſwamps, the ſoil is light, ſandy, and of an inferior quality.

S. What is the principal produce of Delaware?

M. Wheat is the ſtaple of this ſtate: it grows here in ſuch perfection, as not only to be particularly ſought by the manufacturers of flour throughout the Union, but alſo to be diſtinguiſhed and preferred for its ſuperior qualities in foreign markets. Beſides wheat, this ſtate generally produces plentiful crops of Indian-corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, buck-wheat, and potatoes.

2. *Rivers.*

S. What rivers are there in this ſtate?

M. In the ſouthern and weſtern parts, ſpring the head-waters of Pocomoke, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Choptank, Cheſter, Saſſaffras, and Bohemia rivers, all falling into Cheſapeak bay. Some of them are navigable twenty or thirty miles into the country, for veſſels of fifty or ſixty tons.

3. *Population and Trade.*

S. What is the population of Delaware?

M. The number of inhabitants in 1790, was 50,094, of whom 887 were ſlaves.

S. In what does the trade of Delaware conſiſt?

M. Principally in wheat and other kinds of grain; and in

in flour: but it likewiſe exports timber and other articles. The value of the exports in 1794, was 207,985 dollars.

4. *Religion and Learning.*

S. What is the religion of the ſtate of Delaware?

M. In this ſtate there is a variety of religious denominations; all of whom enjoy liberty of conſcience.

S. What proviſions have been made for the encouragement of learning?

M. There is no college in this ſtate. There is an academy at Newark, incorporated in 1769. The legiſlature in Jan. 1796 paſſed an act to create a fund for the eſtabliſhment of ſchools throughout the ſtate.

5. *Principal Towns.*

S. Which are the principal towns in Delaware?

M. Dover being the ſeat of governnment, is conſidered as the metropolis, though it contains but about 100 houſes; but Wilmington is the moſt conſiderable town in the ſtate, containing 600 houſes and 3000 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in ſquares, ſimilar to Philadelphia.

6. *Hiſtorical Events, and Government.*

S. When was Delaware firſt ſettled?

M. Settlements were made by the Dutch, about the year 1623, and by the Swedes about the year 1627. Their ſettlements were comprehended in the grant to the duke of York; and William Penn united them to his government by purchaſe. They were afterwards ſeparated, in ſome meaſure, and denominated the Three Lower Counties. They had their own aſſemblies. but the governor of Pennſylvania uſed to attend, as he did in his own proper government. At the late revolution the three counties were erected into a ſovereign ſtate, and have eſtabliſhed a republican conſtitution.

S. What is the form of the preſent government of Delaware?

M. There is a governor, ſenate, and houſe of repreſentatives. The ſenators are nine in number, three from each county; and the repreſentatives twenty-ſeven. The governor

vernor is not eligible more than three years in ſix. In other particulars the conſtitution of Delaware almoſt exactly agrees with that of Pennſylvania.

DIALOGUE LIV.

MARYLAND.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Maryland?

M. It lies between 37 and 40 degrees of north latitude, and 75 and 80 degrees of weſt longitude; being about 140 miles in length, and 135 in breadth.

S. What are the boundaries and diviſions of this ſtate?

M. It is bounded on the north by Pennſylvania; on the ſouth and weſt by Virginia, and on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, and the ſtate of Delaware. The bay of Cheſapeek divides it into two parts, which, with their ſubdiviſions and principal towns, are exhibited in the following table:

Diviſions.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
Weſt diviſion,	Ann Arundel,	Annapolis.
	Baltimore,	Baltimore.
	St. Mary's,	St. Mary.
	Charles,	Briſtol.
	Prince George,	Maſterkout.
	Calvert,	Abington.
	Frederic,	Frederic-town.
	Waſhington,	Elizabeth-town.
	Montgomery,	
	Hertford,	
	Alleghany,	Cumberland.
Eaſt diviſion.	Worceſter,	Princeſs-Anne.
	Somerſet,	Snow-hill.
	Dorſet,	Dorcheſter.
	Talbot,	Oxford.
	Cecil,	
	Queen Anne's,	Queen's-town.
	Kent,	Cheſter.
	Caroline,	Danton.

1. *An*

1. *Air, Soil, and Produce.*

S. What is the nature of the air and ſoil?

M. The one is exceedingly ſalutary, and the other very fertile.

S. What are the principal vegetable productions of Maryland?

M. Different ſorts of grain, hemp, and tobacco.

2. *Rivers and Bays.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers?

M. The Patowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Choptank, Severn, Saſſafras, and Elk.

S. What bays are there in Maryland?

M. The bay of Cheſapeak, which divides this ſtate into eaſtern and weſtern diviſions, is the largeſt in the United States.

3. *Population and Commerce.*

S. What is the population of Maryland?

M. The number of inhabitants in 1790, was 319,728, of whom 103,036 were ſlaves.

S. In what articles does the trade of Maryland conſiſt?

M. In wheat, Indian corn, tobacco, and iron in pigs and bars. In 1792, the exports from Baltimore, amounted to above two millions of dollars; and in 1795, to nearly ſix millions.

4. *Religion and Learning.*

S. What is the prevailing religion in this ſtate?

M. The Roman-catholics are the moſt numerous religious ſect; but there are beſides a variety of Proteſtant ſects, who all enjoy liberty of conſcience.

S. What ſeminaries are there for the advancement of learning?

M. Waſhington-academy in Somerſet county, inſtituted in 1779, and Waſhington-college at Chester-town, inſtituted in 1784. The Roman-catholics have likewiſe erected a college

lege at George-town, on Patowmac river, for the purpoſes of general literature.

5. *Chief Towns.*

S. Are there any towns of note in Maryland?

M. Annapolis, the capital, and Baltimore. Annapolis is a ſmall, but well ſituated town upon the river Patuxent. It was formerly called Severn, which, in the year 1694, was by an act of the aſſembly of Maryland, changed into Annapolis, and by the ſame act it was made a port-town and the ſeat of a principal cuſtom-houſe, collector, and naval officer. In 1699, the county-court was removed to this town; it was made the principal ſeat of juſtice within the province of Maryland for holding of aſſemblies and provincial courts, and a church was ordered to be built within the port, which was made a pariſh. It is ſituated on a peninſula formed by the river and two ſmall creeks, and affords a beautiful proſpect of Cheſapeak bay, and the eaſtern ſhore beyond it. This city is of little note in the commercial world, but is the wealthieſt town of its ſize in the United States. The houſes, about 300 in number, are ſpacious and elegant, and indicate great wealth. The ſtate-houſe is the nobleſt building of the kind in the Union. It ſtands in the centre of the city, from which point the ſtreets diverge in every direction like radii.

Baltimore is the largeſt town in the ſtate of Maryland: in ſize it is the fourth, and in commerce the fifth in rank in the United States. It is ſituated on the north ſide of Patapſco river, at a ſmall diſtance from its junction with the Cheſapeak. The town is built around what is called the baſon, reckoned one of the fineſt harbours in America. The number of the inhabitants of the town and precincts in 1791, was 13,503 including 1,255 ſlaves, and they muſt have greatly increaſed ſince.

6. *Hiſtorical Events, and Government.*

S. When and by whom was Maryland ſettled?

M. In the year 1632, by lord Baltimore, who being a Roman-catholic, and in great favour with Charles I, incurred thereby the hatred of the people; in conſequence of

of which, reſolving to quit England. he obtained from his royal maſter a grant of part of the lands in Virginia; which in honour of Mary, Charles' queen, he called Maryland. Having firſt purchaſed the land of the natives at an eaſy price he began to ſettle the colony, which received continual reinforcements by the daily arrival of emigrants, whom the troubles of thoſe times forced from England When Cromwell obtained the protectorſhip, he deprived lord Baltimore of all his poſſeſſions in Maryland, but he was afterwards reſtored, and again deprived of them by James II. At the revolution this noble family was once mor re in a ed in their rights; but being Roman-catholics, the go ment was taken from them, and in 1692 Mr. Coxel appointed governor by commiſſion from William and M In 1692, the Proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed by l In 1716 the government of this province was reſtored t the proprietor, and ſo continued till the late revolution, when, though a minor, his property in the lands was confiſcated, and the government aſſumed by the freemen of the province, who, in 1776, formed the conſtitution now exiſting.

S. What is the preſent government of this ſtate?

M. The government is now veſted in a governor, a ſenate of fifteen, and a houſe of delegates, all which are to be choſen annually. The governor is elected by ballot by the ſenate and houſe of delegates.

DIALOGUE LV.

VIRGINIA.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Virginia?

M. It lies between 36 and 40 degrees of north latitude, and 75 and 83 degrees of weſt longitude; being about 446 miles in length, and 224 in breadth.

S. What are its boundaries?

M. It is bounded on the north by Maryland, part of Pennſylvania, and the river Ohio; on the weſt by Kentucky; on the ſouth by North Carolina; and on the eaſt by the Atlantic Ocean,

S. Into how many counties is it divided?
M. Into eighty-two, as enumerated in the following table:

Situation.	*Counties.*	*Situation.*	*Counties.*
West of the Blue Ridge.	Ohio,	Between James River and Carolina.	Greensville,
	Monongalia,		Dinwiddie,
	Washington,		Chesterfield,
	Montgomery,		Prince George,
	Wythe,		Surry,
	Botetourt,		Suffex,
	Green-briar,		Southampton,
	Kanawa,		Isle of Wight,
	Hampshire,		Nanfemond,
	Berkley,		Norfolk,
	Frederick,		Princefs Ann.
	Shenandoah,	Between James and York Rivers.	Henrico,
	Rockingham,		Hanover,
	Auguſta,		New Kent,
	Rockbridge.		Charles City,
Between the Blue Ridge and the Tide-Waters.	Loudoun,		James City,
	Fauquier,		Williamſburg,
	Culpepper,		York,
	Spotſylvania,		Warwick,
	Orange,		Elizabeth City.
	Louiſa,	Between York and Rappahannoc Rivers.	Caroline,
	Goochland,		King William,
	Flavinia,		King & Queen,
	Albemarle,		Eſſex,
	Amherſt,		Middleſex,
	Buckingham,		Gloucester.
	Bedford,	Between Rappahannoc & Patowmack Rivers.	Fairfax,
	Henry,		Prince William,
	Pittſylvania,		
	Halifax,		Stafford,
	Charlotte,		King George,
	Prince Edward,		Richmond,
	Cumberland,		Weſtmoreland,
	Powhatan,		Northumberland,
	Amelia,		
	Nottaway,		Lancaſter.
	Lunenburg,	Eaſtern Shore.	Accomac,
	Mecklenburg,		Northampton.
	Brunſwick.		

New

New Counties.

Campbell,	Hardy,
Franklin,	Pendleton,
Harriſon,	Ruſſel.
Randolph.	

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Virginia ſalutary?

M. Its ſudden change from heat to cold, from dry to moiſt, occaſions many diſorders in the human frame, particularly agues.

S. What ſort of ſoil is it?

M. Exceedingly rich towards the ſea-coaſt, and on the banks of rivers, but at a diſtance from theſe it is light and ſandy.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are found in Virginia?

M. Beſides horſes, cows, ſheep, and hogs, of which there were none till carried thither by the Europeans, there are deer, bears, wolves, foxes, a ſpecies of panther, or tyger, racoons, and opoſſums. There are great varieties of birds: the Virginia nightingale is peculiar to this country, and the humming-bird, the ſmalleſt of all the feathered creation, is a native of it. All ſorts of tame and wild fowl are extremely plentiful.

S. What are the vegetable productions of this ſtate?

M. The planters, before the war, paid their principal attention to the culture of tobacco, of which there uſed to be exported generally 55,000 hogſheads a year. Since the revolution they are turning their attention to the cultivation of wheat, Indian corn, barley, flax, and hemp. Good crops of cotton are alſo raiſed.

3. *Rivers.*

S. What rivers are there in Virginia?

M. Cheſapeak bay, through its whole extent, receives a

vaſt number of navigable rivers from the ſides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, beſides others of leſs note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannoc, and Patowmack. Theſe are not only navigable for large ſhips into the heart of the country, but have ſo many creeks, and receive ſuch a number of ſmaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is, without any kind of doubt, the country of all others in the world of the moſt convenient navigation. It has been obſerved, and the obſervation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

4. *Population and Trade.*

S. What is the population of Virginia?

M. The number of inhabitants in 1790 was 747,610, including 292,627 ſlaves.

S. In what does the trade of Virginia conſiſt?

M. Principally in tobacco and different kinds of grain. In 1790 about 40,000 hogſheads of tobacco were exported, but its culture has ſince declined, and that of wheat taken place. The greateſt quantity of tobacco ever produced in this country, in one year, was 70,000 hogſheads in the year 1758. The exports from this ſtate, in the year 1792, amounted to 3,549,499 dollars; and, in 1796, to 5,268,615 dollars.

5. *Religion and Colleges.*

S. What is the religion of Virginia?

M. All religions are tolerated. The preſent denominations of Chriſtians in this ſtate are preſbyterians, who are moſt numerous, epiſcopalians, baptiſts, and methodiſts.

S. What colleges or other eſtabliſhments are there for the promotion of learning?

M. There is a college at Williamſburg, founded by King William, and called William and Mary College. That monarch gave two thouſand pounds towards building it, and twenty thouſand acres of land, with power to purchaſe and hold lands to the value of two thouſand pounds a year; and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a preſident, ſix profeſſors, and other officers, who are always appointed by the governors or viſitors.

viſitors. The academy in Prince Edward County has been erected into a college. There are likewiſe a number of academies in different parts of Virginia.

6. *Chief Towns.*

S. Which are the principal towns of Virginia?

M. This ſtate is not divided into townſhips, nor are there any large towns, owing, probably, to the interſection of the country by navigable rivers, which bring the trade to the doors of the inhabitants, and prevent the neceſſity of their going in queſt of it to a diſtance. The principal towns are Richmond, the capital, Williamſburg and Norfolk. Richmond contains between 400 and 500 houſes, and about 4,000 inhabitants. Here is a large ſtate-houſe, or capitol, lately erected. Williamſburg was formerly the ſeat of government. It contains about 200 houſes, and about 1,400 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in parallel ſtreets, with a pleaſant ſquare in the centre of about ten acres, through which runs the principal ſtreet, about a mile in length, and more than 200 feet wide. Norfolk is the moſt conſiderable commercial town in Virginia. The harbour is ſafe and commodious, and large enough to contain 300 ſhips. In 1790 it contained 2,959 inhabitants, including 1,294 ſlaves.

7. *Hiſtorical Events, and Government.*

S. When was this colony ſettled?

M. It was attempted by Sir Walter Raleigh, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, (in honour of whom it was called Virginia) but without ſucceſs; for the three firſt companies who went there periſhed through want and ſickneſs, and the fourth was returning to their native country, when the intreaties of lord Delawar, who had been ſent with a ſquadron to their relief, prevailed on them to ſtay and endeavour once more to ſettle a colony. In a ſhort time he had the pleaſure of ſeeing his endeavours crowned with ſucceſs, and the ill ſtate of his health obliging him to return to England, he left his ſon, and ſeveral other gentlemen to continue the excellent work he had begun. Accordingly they erected James Town, and by their aſſiduity brought the colony into a very flouriſhing ſtate, which ever ſince that time has continued to improve.

S. What is the form of government in Virginia?

M. The legiſlative authority is lodged in a ſenate and houſe of delegates elected annually by the freeholders; and the executive in a governor and privy council of eight members, choſen annually by the joint ballot of the general aſſembly of the ſtate, who alſo chooſe the delegates to congreſs, the judges, and other public officers.

DIALOGUE LXVI.

KENTUCKY.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Kentucky?

M. It lies between 36°. 30′ and 39°. 30′ of north latitude, and between 81 and 89 degrees of weſt longitude, being about 250 miles in length, and 200 in breadth.

S. What are the boundaries of this ſtate?

M. It is bounded on the north-weſt by the river Ohio; on the weſt by Cumberland River; on the ſouth by the ſtate of Tenneſſee; and on the eaſt by Sandy River, and a line drawn due ſouth from its ſource till it meets the northern boundaries of Tenneſſee.

S. How is it divided?

M. Into the following fourteen counties.

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Jefferſon, - - - - -	Louiſville.
Fayette, - - - - -	Lexington.
Bourbon, - - - - -	Bourbon.
Mercer, - - - - -	Harrodſtown.
Nelſon, - - - - -	Bardſtown.
Maddiſon, - - - -	Milford.
Lincoln,	
Woodford, - - - -	Verſailles.
Maſon, - - - - -	Waſhington.
Clarke, - - - - -	Wincheſter.
Scott,	
Logan,	
Franklin, - - - - -	Franklin.

1. *Air, Soil, and Produce.*

S. Is the climate of Kentucky healthy?

M. It is extremely healthy and delightful, ſome few places in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds excepted. The inhabitants do not experience the extremes of heat and cold.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil, and what is its principal produce?

M. The accounts of the fertility of the ſoil in this country have, in ſome inſtances, exceeded belief, and probably have been exaggerated. The lands of the firſt rate are too rich for wheat; and will produce 50 and 60, and in ſome inſtances, it is affirmed, 100 buſhels of good corn an acre. In common the land will produce 30 buſhels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds, common in this climate, yield abundantly.

2. *Rivers.*

S. What rivers are there in Kentucky?

M. The river Ohio waſhes the north weſtern ſide of Kentucky in its whole extent. Its principal branches, which water this fertile tract of country, are the Sandy, Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green, and Cumberland rivers.

3. *Population.*

S. What is the population of Kentucky?

M. In 1790 it contained 73,677 inhabitants, including 12,430 ſlaves. They are now, probably, much increaſed by emigrations; as it is aſſerted that upwards of 20,000 perſons emigrated hither in the year 1787.

4. *Natural Curioſities.*

S. Are there not ſome natural curioſities in Kentucky?

M. Caves have been diſcovered in this country ſeveral miles in length, ſupported by curious arches and pillars. At a ſalt ſpring near the river Ohio very large bones have been found, far ſurpaſſing the ſize of any ſpecies of animals now

in America: the head appears to have been conſiderably above three feet long. The late Dr. Hunter ſaid they could not be the bones of the elephant, and that, from the form of the teeth, the creature to which they belonged muſt have been carnivorous, and belonging to a race of animals now extinct. Near Lexington are found curious ſepulchres full of human ſkeletons.

5. *Religion and Learning.*

S. What is the prevailing religion in Kentucky?

M. The baptiſts are the moſt numerous religious ſect in Kentucky. There are ſeveral large congregations of preſbyterians, and ſome few of other denominations.

S. Have any colleges or academies been founded in Kentucky?

M. The legiſlature of Virginia, while Kentucky belonged to that ſtate, made proviſion for a college in it, and endowed it with very conſiderable landed property. This college, however, has not flouriſhed, and another has been eſtabliſhed, and conſiderable ſums collected for its ſupport.

6. *Chief Towns.*

S. Which are the principal towns in Kentucky?

M. Kentucky as yet contains no very large towns: the principal are Lexington, Waſhington, and Louiſville. Lexington contains about 250 houſes, and about 2,000 inhabitants.

7. *Hiſtorical Events, and Government.*

S. What is the hiſtory of Kentucky?

M. The ſame with that of Virginia, of which it made a part till the year 1792; when it was erected into an independent ſtate.

S. What is its form of government?

M. The legiſlative power is veſted in a general aſſembly, conſiſting of a ſenate and a houſe of repreſentatives; and the executive in a governor: the repreſentatives are choſen annually by the people; and the ſenators and governor are choſen

choſen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpoſe.

DIALOGUE LVII.

NORTH CAROLINA.

S. WHAT are the ſituation, extent and boundaries of North Carolina?

M. It lies between 33. 50, and 37 degrees of North latitude, and between 76 and 83 degrees of weſt longitude, being about 450 miles in length, and 180 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by Virginia; on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean; on the ſouth by South Carolina; and on the weſt by the ſtate of Tenneſſee.

S. How it divided?

M. Into 8 diſtricts, and 58 counties, according to the following table:

Diſtricts.	*Counties.*	*Diſtricts.*	*Counties.*
Edenton, 9 Counties.	Chowan, Currituck, Cambden, Paſquetank, Perquemions, Gates, Hertford, Bertie, Tyrrel.	Wilmington, 5 Counties.	New Hanover, Brunſwick, Duplin, Bladen, Onſlow.
Newbern, 10 Counties.	Carteret, Jones, Craven, Beaufort, Hyde, Pitt, Wayne, Glaſgow, Lenoir, Johnſon.	Halifax, 7 Counties.	Halifax, Northampton, Martin, Edgecomb, Warren, Franklin, Naſh.
		Hillſborough, 7 Counties.	Granville, Perſon, Caſwell, Orange, Wake, Chatham, Randolph.

Diſtricts.	*Counties.*	*Diſtricts.*	*Counties.*
Fayette, 6 Counties.	Cumberland, Moore, Richmond, Robiſon, Sampſon, Anſon.	Saliſbury, 9 Counties.	Rockingham, Guildford, Montgomery, Stokes, Surry, Iredell, Rowan. Cabarras, Mecklenburg.
Morgan, 5 Counties.	Burke, Wilkes, Rutherford, Lincoln, Buncomb.		

Of theſe diſtricts Edenton, Newbern, and Wilmington are called the Eaſtern Diſtricts; Fayette, Hillſborough, and Halifax, Middle Diſtricts; and Saliſbury and Morgan, Weſtern Diſtricts.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of North Carolina healthy?

M. In the weſtern hilly parts of the ſtate it is as healthy as in any part of America; but in the flat country it is leſs ſo.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. On the banks of the rivers, particularly the Roanoke, it is fertile and good; but North Carolina, in its whole width for ſixty miles from the ſea, is a dead level, and a great proportion of this tract lies in foreſt, and is barren.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are found in this ſtate, and what is its vegetable produce?

M. The animals are nearly the ſame as in Virginia. The vegetable productions are wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, Indian corn, and pulſe of every kind, tobacco, cotton, hemp. Among the roots and plants are ginſeng, ſnake-root, lion's heart, a ſovereign remedy for the bite of a ſerpent.

3. *Rivers*

3. *Rivers and Capes.*

S. Which are the principal rivers and capes in this part of America?

M. The principal rivers are the Chowan, the Roanoke, the Pamlico, or Tar. the Nuſe, and the Cape Fear, or Clarendon: the principal capes are Cape Fear, Cape Lookout, and Cape Hatteras.

4. *Population and Trade.*

S. What is the population of North Carolina?

M. The number of inhabitants in 1790 was 393,751, including 100,571 ſlaves.

S. In what does the trade of this ſtate conſiſt?

M. A great proportion of the produce of the back country, conſiſting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, and other grain, is carried to market in South Carolina and Virginia. The exports from the lower parts of the ſtate are tar, pitch, turpentine, roſin, Indian corn, furs, tobacco, lard, tallow, and bees-wax, and other articles, amounting in 1791 to 524,548 dollars.

5. *Religion and Univerſity.*

S. What religious ſects are there in North Carolina?

M. The methodiſts and baptiſts are numerous and increaſing; the Moravians have ſeveral flouriſhing ſettlements in the upper part of this ſtate: and the friends, or quakers have a ſettlement in New Garden in Guildford County, and ſeveral congregations at Pequimins and Paſquotank.

S. Are there any colleges or academies?

M. The general aſſembly of North Carolina, in December 1789, paſſed a law, incorporating forty gentlemen, five from each diſtrict, as truſtees of the univerſity of North Carolina; and the ſtate has given handſome donations for the endowment of this ſeminary.

6. *Chief Towns.*

S. Which are the principal towns in this ſtate?

M. Newbern is the largeſt town in this ſtate; Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillſborough, Saliſbury, and Fayetteville have been in their turns the ſeat of the general aſſembly. Raleigh, ſituated near the centre of the ſtate, has lately been eſtabliſhed as the metropolis.

7. *Hiſtorical Events and Government.*

S. When was North Carolina firſt ſettled?

M. The firſt permanent ſettlement was made in North Carolina about the year 1710 by a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumſtances of great indigence by a calamitous war. The infant colony remained under the general government of South Carolina till about the year 1729; when ſeven of the proprietors, for a valuable conſideration, veſted their property and juriſdiction in the crown; and this colony was erected into a ſeparate province, by the name of North Carolina, and its preſent limits eſtabliſhed by an order of George II.

S. What is the preſent form of government in North Carolina?

M. The legiſlative authority is veſted in a ſenate and a houſe of commons, elected annually by the people; the executive in a governor and ſeven counſellors.

DIALOGUE LVIII.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

S. WHAT is the ſituation and extent of South Carolina; and how is it bounded?

M. It lies between 32 and 35 degrees of north latitude, and between 78 and 81 degrees of weſt longitude. It is in length about 200 miles, and in breadth 125. It is bounded on the north by North Carolina; on the eaſt by the Atlantic

tic ocean; on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by Savannah river, which divides it from Georgia.

S. How is this ſtate divided?

M. Into 9 diſtricts, which are again ſubdivided into 38 counties, as follows:

Diſtricts.	*Counties.*	*Diſtricts.*	*Counties.*
Beaufort Diſtrict.	Hilton, Lincoln, Granville, Shrewſbury.	Charleſtown Diſtrict.	Charleſtown, Waſhington, Marion, Berkeley, Colleton, Bartholomew.
Georgetown Diſtrict.	Winyah, Williamſburg, Kingſton, Liberty.	Cheraws Diſtrict.	Marlborough, Cheſterfield, Darlington.
Orange Diſtrict.	Lewiſburg, Orange, Lexington, Winton.	Ninety-ſix Diſtrict.	Abbeville, Edgefield, Newbury, Laurens.
Camden Diſtrict.	Clarendon, Richland, Fairfield, Cleremont, Lancaſter, Kerſhaw, Salem.	Pinckney Diſtrict.	York, Cheſter, Union, Spartanburgh.
		Waſhington Diſtrict.	Pendleton, Greenville.

1. *Air, Soil, and Produce.*

S. Is the climate of Carolina healthy?

M. The climate is different in different parts, but, in general, that of no country is more ſerene and healthful.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. That too is various, in different parts, but on the whole it is extremely fertile.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are there in this part of America?

M. They do not differ from thoſe of North Carolina and Virginia.

S. What

S. What are the vegetable productions of this ſtate?

M. Indian corn, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, indigo, tobacco, cotton and ſilk. The foreſts conſiſt of fine tall trees of different kinds, ſome of which yield turpentine, roſin, tar, pitch, and gums.

3. *Rivers and Mountains.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers of South Carolina?

M. The Santee is the largeſt, beſides which there are the Savannah, the Ediſto, and the Pedee.

S. Are there not ſome mountains?

M. The Tryon and Hogback mountains are about 200 miles north-weſt of Charleſtown: their elevation above their baſe is 3840 feet; and above the ſea-coaſt 4640.

4. *Population and Trade.*

S. What is the population of South Carolina?

M. The number of inhabitants in 1790 was 249,073, including 107,004 ſlaves.

S. In what articles does the trade of South Carolina conſiſt?

M. The principal exports are rice, indigo, ſkins, cotton, pitch, tar, reſin, turpentine, cedar-wood, ſarſaparilla, ſnake-root, lumber, ſhingles, ſtaves, and hides. In 1791 the amount of exports from this ſtate was 2,693,267 dollars; and in 1795, 5,998,492 dollars.

5. *Religion and Learning.*

S. Which are the principal religious ſects in South Carolina?

M. The preſbyterians and independents are moſt numerous: there are alſo epiſcopalians, baptiſts, methodiſts, and other ſects.

S. What inſtitutions are there for the advancement of learning?

M. The literature of this ſtate is rather at a low ebb; ſince the peace, however, it has begun to flouriſh. Three colleges have lately been incorporated by law; one at Charleſtown,

town, one at Winnſborough, and one at Cambridge. There are likewiſe ſeveral reſpectable academies at Charleſtown, and in other parts of the ſtate.

6. *Chief Towns.*

S. Which are the principal towns of South Carolina?

M. Charleſtown, Beaufort, Georgetown, Columbia, and Camden. Charleſtown is by far the moſt conſiderable city on the ſea-coaſt for an extent of 600 miles. It is ſituated on a peninſula, formed by the two navigable rivers, Aſhley and Cowper, and has a harbour, in every reſpect commodious, except a bar at the mouth, which prevents veſſels of more than 200 tons burthen from entering it. The town is pretty regularly and ſtrongly fortified both by nature and art; but the works are not improved to ſuch advantage as they might be. The ſtreets are well contrived, being wide and ſtraight, interſecting each other at right angles, and thoſe running eaſt and weſt, extend about a mile from one river to the other. The houſes, of which there are about 1600, are handſome, elegant, and well-built. In 1791, it contained 16,359 inhabitants, including 7684 ſlaves. This city has frequently ſuffered much by fire: the laſt and moſt deſtructive happened ſo late as June 1796.

7. *Hiſtorical Events, and Government.*

S. When and by whom was this country ſettled?

M. In the year 1663 Charles II. granted a charter to ſeveral noblemen for the property and juriſdiction of Carolina. They parcelled out the lands to ſuch perſons as were willing to leave their native country, and the firſt town they built was Charleſtown, which is ſtill the capital of South Carolina. It was not long before religious diſputes and the incurſions of the Indians threatened the deſtruction of this infant colony; the government, therefore, thought proper to purchaſe it of the proprietors and place it under the immediate protection of the crown. In the year 1728, it was divided into two diſtinct independent governments, called North and South Carolina.

DIALOGUE LIX.

GEORGIA.

S. WHAT is the situation of Georgia?

M. It lies between 30°. 37′, and 35 degrees of north latitude, and between 80 and 9 degrees of west longitude.

S. What is its extent, and how is it bounded?

M. It is about 600 miles in length, and 250 in breadth; and is bounded on the east by the Atlantic ocean, on the south by Florida, on the west by the river Missisippi, and on the north-east and north by South Carolina and Tenessee.

S. How is it divided?

M. It was formerly divided into parishes, afterwards into three districts, but lately into two districts, which are subdivided into 24 counties as follow:

Districts.	*Counties.*		*Chief Towns.*
Lower District.	Camden,		St. Patrick.
	Glyn,		Brunswick.
	Liberty,		Sunbury.
	Chatham,		Savannah.
	Burke,		Waynesburgh.
	Effingham,		Ebenezer.
	M'Intosh,	New Counties.	
	Scriven,		
	Bryan,		
Upper District.	Richmond,		Augusta.
	Washington,		Colphinton.
	Wilkes,		Washington.
	Greene,		Greensborough.
	Franklin,	New Counties.	
	Montgomery,		
	Hancock,		
	Oglethorpe,		
	Elbert,		
	Lincoln,		
	Warren,		
	Jefferson,		
	Jackson,		
	Bullock,		
	Columbia,		

Air,

1. *Air, Soil, and Produce.*

S. What is the nature of the climate and ſoil of Georgia?

M. The climate is extremely temperate: the winters in Georgia are very mild and pleaſant; ſnow is ſeldom or never ſeen, nor is vegetation often prevented by ſevere froſts. The air is ſo healthful, as frequently to have very ſalutary effects on conſumptive habits.

The ſoil in general is extremely fertile; but its fertility varies in different parts of the ſtate according to ſituation and improvements.

S. What is the principal produce of this ſtate?

M. Rice is, at preſent, the ſtaple commodity; tobacco, wheat, and indigo are the other great articles of produce.

2. *Rivers.*

S. Which are the principal rivers in this ſtate?

M. The Savannah, Ogechee, Alatamaha, Turtle River, Little Sitilla, Great Sitilla, Crooked River, and St. Mary's.

3. *Population and Trade.*

S. What is the population of Georgia?

M. According to the cenſus of 1790, the number of inhabitants amounted to 82,548, including 29,264 ſlaves.

S. In what articles does the trade of Georgia conſiſt?

M. In rice, tobacco, indigo, ſago, naval ſtores, leather, bees-wax, corn, and live ſtock. In 1791, the exports from this ſtate amounted to 491,172 dollars; and, in 1796, to 950,158.

4. *Religion and Learning.*

S. What are the principal religious ſects in this ſtate?

M. The preſbyterians, epiſcopalians, baptiſts, and methodiſts.

S. What proviſions have been made for the advancement of learning?

M. A college, with ample and liberal endowments has been inſtituted in Louiſville. There is alſo proviſion made for

for the inſtitution of an academy in each county of the ſtate, to be ſupported from the ſame funds, and conſidered as parts and members of the ſame inſtitution, which is to be denominated the Univerſity of Georgia.

5. *Chief Towns.*

S. Which are the chief towns in Georgia?

M. Auguſta, formerly the ſeat of government; Savannah, the former capital of the ſtate; Frederica and Louiſville.

Savannah lies ten miles diſtant from the ſea, upon the river of the ſame name, which is navigable for boats upwards of 200 miles, and ſhips of three hundred tons burthen can lie within ſix yards of the town, and cloſe to a ſteep bank, extending near a mile along the river ſide. The town is regularly built in the form of a parallelogram, and, in 1787, contained about 2300 inhabitants.

Louiſville, now the metropolis of the ſtate, is ſituated on the river Ogechee, 70 miles from its mouth. It has been lately laid out. The Convention for the reviſal of the conſtitution ſat in this town in May 1795, and appointed the records to be removed, and the legiſlature to meet here in future.

6. *Hiſtorical Events and Government.*

S. When and by whom was the firſt ſettlement made in this country?

M. The ſettlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when ſeveral public-ſpirited noblemen and others, from compaſſion to the poor of theſe kingdoms, ſubſcribed a conſiderable ſum, which, with 10,000l. from government, was given to provide neceſſaries for ſuch perſons as were willing to tranſport themſelves into this country. General Oglethorpe went over with the ſettlers. Before the year 1752, 1000 perſons were ſettled in this province. Georgia ſuffered conſiderably during the American war; but, ſince the peace, its increaſe in population has been aſtoniſhingly rapid.

S. What is the preſent form of government in Georgia?

M. The legiſlative authority is veſted in a houſe of aſſembly

aſſembly of ſeventy-two repreſentatives; and the executive in a governor and executive council of twelve members.

DIALOGUE LX.

TENNESSEE.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of the ſtate of Tenneſſee?

M. It lies between 81 and 91 degrees of weſt longitude, and between 35 and 37 degrees of north latitude.

S. What are its boundaries and extent?

M. It is bounded on the north by Kentucky and part of Virginia, on the eaſt by North Carolina, on the ſouth by Georgia, and on the weſt by the river Miſſiſſippi. It is in length 400 miles, and in breadth 104.

S. How is it divided?

M. Into three diſtricts, Waſhington, Hamilton, and Mero, which are ſubdivided into fourteen counties as follow:

Diſtricts.	*Counties.*	*Diſtricts.*	*Counties.*
Waſhington Diſtrict.	Waſhington, Sullivan, Greene, Carter, Hawkins.	Mero Diſtrict.	Davidſon, Sumner, Robertſon, Montgomery.
Hamilton Diſtrict.	Knox, Jefferſon, Sevier, Blount, Grainger.		

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. What is the nature of the climate and ſoil of Tenneſſee.

M. The climate is temperate and healthful; the ſummers are cool and pleaſant in that part which is contiguous to the

the mountains that divide this ſtate from North Carolina; but on the weſtern ſide of the Cumberland mountains the heat is much greater, which renders that part of the country more adapted for the cultivation of tobacco, cotton, and indigo.

The ſoil is luxuriant, and will afford every production which is the growth of any of the United States. The uſual crop of cotton is 800lbs. to the acre, of a long and fine ſtaple, and of corn from 60 to 80 buſhels.

2. *Rivers and Mountains.*

S. What rivers are there in this ſtate?

M. The Miſſiſſippi, Tenneſſee, Cumberland, Holſton and Clinch. The Miſſiſſippi is one of the principal rivers of North America. Its ſources have never been explored, but the length of its courſe cannot be leſs than upwards of 3000 miles.

S. Are there not ſome conſiderable mountains in Tenneſſee?

M. The principal mountains are the Cumberland, Stone, Yellow, Iron, Bald, and Unakna. Some of theſe, particularly the Cumberland, or Great Laurel Ridge, are the moſt ſtupendous piles in the United States. The caverns and caſcades in theſe mountains are innumerable.

3. *Animals and Vegetables.*

S. What animals are there in Tenneſſee?

M. Elks, or mooſe deer, bears, wolves, beavers, and otters. This country likewiſe abounded a few years ſince with large herds of wild animals, improperly called buffaloes, but the improvident or ill-diſpoſed among the firſt ſettlers deſtroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonneſs. They are ſtill to be found on ſome of the ſouth branches of Cumberland river.

S. What are the principal vegetable productions?

M. Indian corn, wheat, flax, hemp, tobacco, indigo, cotton, and rice.

4. *Natural Curioſities.*

S. Are there not ſome natural curioſities in Tenneſſee?

M. The mountain called the *Enchanted Mountain*, about two miles ſouth of Braſs Town, is famed for the curioſities on its rocks. There are on ſeveral rocks a number of impreſſions reſembling the tracks of turkies, bears, horſes, and human beings. The latter are remarkable for having uniformly ſix toes each, one only excepted, which appears to be the print of a negro's foot. One of theſe tracks is very large, the length of the foot being ſixteen inches. One of the horſe tracks is likewiſe of an uncommon ſize. Whether theſe are the ſports of nature, the work of art, or the impreſſions of real feet, it is impoſſible to aſcertain. What appears the moſt in favour of their being the real tracks of the animals they repreſent, is the circumſtance of a horſe's foot having ſlipped ſeveral inches and recovered again; and the figures having all the ſame direction like the trail of a company on a journey. Near the place are vaſt heaps of ſtones, ſaid to be the tombs of warriors ſlain in battle. Some of the Cherokees entertain an opinion that it always rains when any perſon viſits the place, as if ſympathetic nature wept at the recollection of the cataſtrophe which thoſe figures were intended to repreſent.

5. *Population and Trade.*

S. What is the population of Tenneſſee?

M. In 1795 the number of inhabitants was 77,262.

S. What trade has it?

M. As this ſtate is newly erected, it cannot be ſuppoſed as yet to have a very extenſive trade; it however furniſhes moſt of the valuable articles of commerce which form the trade of the ſouthern ſtates, ſuch as fine waggon and ſaddle horſes, beef cattle, deer-ſkins, iron, flour, cotton, hemp, and flax.

6. *Religion and Learning.*

S. Which are the principal religious ſects in Tenneſſee?

M. The preſbyterians are the prevailing denomination of

of Chriſtians in this ſtate. They have a preſbytery called the Abingdon Preſbytery, eſtabliſhed by act of ſynod, which, in 1788, conſiſted of twenty-three large congregations. There are alſo ſome baptiſts and methodiſts.

S. Is any inſtitution eſtabliſhed for the promotion of learning?

M. A "Society for promoting Uſeful Knowledge" has been formed; and a taſte for literature is daily increaſing.

7. *Chief Towns.*

S. Which are the principal towns in Tenneſſee?

M. The principal towns are Knoxville, the ſeat of government, Naſhville, and Joneſborough.

6. *Hiſtorical Events.*

S. When was this part of America firſt ſettled?

M. This country was included in the ſecond charter of King Charles II. to the proprietors of Carolina. In a ſubſequent diviſion it made a part of North Carolina. It was explored about the year 1745, and ſettled by about fifty families in 1754, who were ſoon after driven off or deſtroyed by the Indians. Its ſettlement recommenced in 1765. In 1785 the inhabitants of this diſtrict attempted to form themſelves into a body politic, by the name of the State of Frankland, but, differing among themſelves, the project was given up. In 1789 North Carolina ceded this territory to the United States on certain conditions, and Congreſs provided for its government. A convention was held at Knoxville in 1796, and, on the 6th of February, the conſtitution of the ſtate of Tenneſſee was ſigned by every member of it. Its principles promiſe to enſure the happineſs and proſperity of the people.

DIALOGUE LXI.

NORTH-WESTERN TERRITORY.

S. IS there not an extenſive tract of country, conſidered as belonging to the United States, called the

the North-Weſtern Territory, or Territory North-Weſt of the Ohio?

M. There is.

S. What is its ſituation, and of what extent is it?

M. It lies between 37 and 50 degrees of north latitude, and 81 and 91 degrees of weſt longitude. Its greateſt length is about 900 miles, and its breadth 700.

S. How is it bounded?

M. On the north by part of the northern boundary line of the United States, on the eaſt by the Lakes and Pennſylvania, on the ſouth by the river Ohio, and on the weſt by the Miſſiſſippi.

S. Has not ſome part of it been divided into counties?

M. That part of it in which the Indian title is extinguiſhed, and which is ſettling under the government of the United States, is divided into five counties as follows:

Counties.	*When erected.*
Waſhington, - - -	July 26th, 1788.
Hamilton, - - -	Jan. 2d, 1790.
St. Clair, - - - -	April 27th, 1790.
Knox, - - - - -	June 20th, 1793.
Wayne. - - - - -	- - - - 1796.

1. *Soil, and Produce.*

S. What is the nature of the ſoil, and what the produce of this country?

M. The lands on the various rivers which water this territory are interſperſed with all the variety of ſoil which conduces to pleaſantneſs of ſituation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of an agricultural and manufacturing people. Large level bottoms, or natural meadows from twenty to fifty miles in circuit, are found bordering the rivers, and variegating the country in the interior parts. Theſe afford as rich a ſoil as can be imagined, and may be reduced to proper cultivation with very little labour. Great quantities of the moſt uſeful timber-trees are found here. Both high and low lands produce great quantities of natural grapes of various kinds, of which the ſettlers make a rich red wine. Cotton is ſaid to be the natural production of this country.

2. *Rivers.*

S. Which are the principal rivers of this country?

M. The Muſkingum, Hockhocking, Sciota, Great and Little Miami, Illenois, and Chippeway.

3. *Government and future Diviſions.*

S. What is the preſent government, and what the intended future diviſion of this country?

M. By an ordinance of Congreſs, paſſed on the 13th of July 1787, this country, for the purpoſes of temporary government, was erected into one diſtrict, ſubject however to a diviſion, when circumſtances ſhall render it expedient. The ſame ordinance provides that, whenever population ſhall be ſufficiently increaſed, there ſhall be formed in this territory not leſs than three, nor more than five ſtates. The governor of this territory is appointed by Congreſs, and his commiſſion continues in force three years, unleſs ſooner revoked.

The ſettlement of this country has been checked for ſeveral years paſt by the unhappy Indian war, an amicable termination of which took place on the 3d of Auguſt 1795, when a treaty was concluded, ſince which a trade has been opened, by a law of Congreſs, with the Indians, on ſuch a liberal footing, as promiſes to give permanency to the treaty, and ſecurity to the frontier inhabitants.

DIALOGUE LXII.

Of the WEST-INDIA ISLANDS *in general.*

S. WHAT am I to underſtand by the Weſt India Iſlands?

M. A great number of iſlands, ſituated in a large gulph, generally called the Caribean Sea, between the two continents of America.

S. Why are they called the Weſt India Iſlands?

M. I have already told you that Chriſtopher Columbus, the diſcoverer of America, propoſed to ſail to the Eaſt Indies

Indies by a weſtern coaſt; but, inſtead of reaching Aſia, he found America. He was, however, perſuaded that theſe iſlands were the weſtern part of India, and died before a ſufficient number of voyages could be made to convince him of his error. From this miſtaken notion the iſlands acquired the name of the Weſt Indies.

S. To whom do thoſe iſlands belong?

M. They are divided between five European powers; Spain, England, France, Holland, and Denmark.

S. What is the climate in general of the Weſt India Iſlands?

M. As they are all of them ſituated in the torrid zone, the ſun is vertical twice every year; and therefore they are ſubject to very great heats, which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, that riſes gradually as the ſun gathers ſtrength, did not blow in upon them from the ſea, and refreſh the air with a cooling breeze. The trade wind falls as the ſun approaches the horizon; and, as the night advances, is followed by a breeze which blows from the land, ſeemingly from its center, towards the ſea. As the ſun approaches towards a vertical direction, his perpendicular beams are ſhrouded in a vaſt body of vapours, which greatly leſſen their force. Theſe vapours diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, thirſty with a long drought. Theſe rains by no means reſemble ours. They are rather floods than ſhowers. The waters pour down from the clouds with amazing impetuoſity; the rivers ſwell in a moment; new brooks and lakes are formed, and in a ſhort time all the low country is totally under water. Theſe rains mark out the ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies, where the whole year is properly a continued ſummer. The trees are always covered with leaves; no cold, no froſts, no ſnows are ever known.

S. I have often read of hurricanes in the Weſt Indies; are thoſe dreadful ſtorms common to that climate?

M. They are indeed too common, as they often deſtroy in a moment the aſſiduous labour of many years: the hopes of the planter are wreſted from him ſometimes at the very moment when he thinks himſelf beyond the reach of misfortune.

S. What is the nature of a hurricane?

M. It is a violent guſt of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a violent ſwelling of the ſea, and

ſometimes with an earthquake; in a word, with every terrible and deſtructive circumſtance the elements can aſſemble. As a prelude to the approaching havock, the aſtoniſhed planter ſees whole fields of ſugar-canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the face of the adjacent country. The ſtrongeſt trees of the foreſt are torn up by the roots, and driven about like ſtubble; the wind-mills are ſwept away in a moment; their utenſils, their fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and ſtills of ſeveral hundred weight are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houſes are no protection, the roofs are torn off with the firſt blaſt, while the rain ruſhes in upon them with a violence almoſt irreſiſtible.

S. Have the inhabitants any warning of theſe dreadful efforts of the elements?

M. They have. A hurricane always happens either in the quarters, or at the full and change of the moon. If it comes on at the full, the following ſigns indicate its approach. The ſky appears with a turbulent aſpect, the ſun more red than uſual, a dead calm ſucceeds, and the ſummits of the hills appear free from thoſe clouds and miſts which at other times hover round them. A hollow rumbling ſound, like the ruſhing of a mighty wind, is heard in the wells and clefts of the mountains. At night the ſtars appear much larger than uſual, and ſurrounded with a ſort of burs; the north-weſt has a black and menacing look: the ſea emits a ſtrong ſmell, and riſes into vaſt waves, often without a breath of wind; the breeze forſakes its uſual ſteady direction, and ſhifts about to the weſtward, blowing violently in that direction with intermiſſions of about two hours at a time. The moon is ſurrounded with an enormous burr; and ſometimes the ſun has the ſame appearance. When theſe ſigns are ſeen, the inhabitants are ſeized with conſternation. Terror is painted in every countenance. The deſtructive blaſt is expected with horror, and every precaution that human prudence can ſuggeſt, is taken to render its effects leſs dreadful.

S. What are the ſtaple commodities of the Weſt Indies?

M. Sugar and rum.

S. From what are theſe commodities extracted?

M. From the ſugar-cane. The ſugar is the eſſential ſalt of the plant, extracted from the juice by boiling, ſcumming, and cryſtallization. The rum is diſtilled from the molaſſes,

molaſſes, and the dregs of the juice, after the ſalt is purified.

S. Were the Engliſh the firſt who engaged in planting the ſugar-cane?

M. No. The Portugueſe firſt planted that ſpecies of cane in America, and brought its produce into requeſt, as one of the materials of an univerſal luxury in Europe.

S. Is the ſugar cane a native of America?

M. Your queſtion cannot be directly anſwered. It is not known whether the Portugueſe found that plant in America, or brought it thither from Aſia or Africa.

S. Was ſugar known before the Portugueſe cultivated the plant in America?

M. In China it was, but not in Europe: and it is ſuppoſed the Portugueſe derived all their knowledge of it from that Eaſtern people.

DIALOGUE LXIII.

ISLANDS *belonging to the* ENGLISH *in the* WEST INDIES.

S. WHAT are the names of the iſlands belonging to the Engliſh in the Weſt-Indies?

M. Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Chriſtophers, Antigua, Nevis, Montſerrat, Barbuda, Anguilla, Dominica, Martinico, St. Vincent, Granada, the Grenadines, and Tobago.

S. Are there no other iſlands belonging to Great Britain?

M. Not in the Weſt Indies; but ſhe poſſeſſes the following iſlands, ſituated upon the coaſt of America, though at ſome thouſand miles diſtance from each other, viz. Newfoundland, Cape Breton, St. John's, Bermudas or Summer Iſlands, and the Lucays or Bahama Iſlands.

S. Will you favour me with ſome account of theſe iſlands?

M. I will very readily, and ſhall be glad to anſwer any queſtions you aſk, in the moſt explicit manner I can.

1. *Jamaica.*

S. What is the ſituation of this iſland?

M. It lies between 17 and 18 degrees of north latitude, and 75 and 79 degrees weſt longitude, being about 140 miles in length, and 60 in breadth.

S. Is the air in the iſland of Jamaica ſalutary?

M. Quite the contrary; it being intenſely hot. In the months of May and October the rains are extremely violent, and ſometimes laſt for a fortnight without intermiſſion. Jamaica is very ſubject to hurricanes and earthquakes.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. Very rich and fertile.

S. What are the vegetable productions of this iſland?

M. The ſugar canes, Indian corn, Guinea corn various ſorts of peas and roots, Seville and China oranges, ſour and ſweet lemons, limes, ſhaddocks, citrons, pomegranates, papas, mamees, ſour ſops, pine apples, cuſtard apples, ſtar apples, allicada pears, prickly pears, pompions, guavas, melons, and ſeveral other ſorts of fruit, which it would be tedious to particularize. The trees found upon that iſland are, the cabbage tree, the manchineal apple tree, the mahogany tree, the palma, the ſoap tree, the mangrove, the olive, the fuſtic, the redwood, the cotton tree, and the wild cinnamon tree. Jamaica likewiſe produces ginger, pimento, vulgarly called Jamaica pepper, guaiacum, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, and tamarinds. Cacao and indigo were formerly much cultivated in that iſland, and, of late years, logwood has been introduced.

S. What animals are there in Jamaica?

M. A vaſt plenty of hogs, ſome black cattle, ſheep, the land and ſea turtle, and the alligator. Fowl, both wild and tame, in great numbers; turkies, geeſe, ducks, Guinea hens, parrots, parrokets, humming birds, pelicans, ſnipes, teal, and a variety of others. The rivers abound in fiſh, as the mountains do in ſerpents and other obnoxious animals.

S. In what articles does the commerce of that iſland conſiſt?

M. In ſugars, rum, cotton, cacao, coffee, dying and phyſical drugs, pepper, ginger, ſweetmeats, mahogany, and manchineal timber.

S. Is this commerce conſiderable?

M. It

M. It is very great and very lucrative. The ſalary of the governor is not leſs than 10,000l. per annum.

S. Did this iſland always belong to the Engliſh?

M. No.

S. How came the Engliſh poſſeſſed of the Iſland of Jamaica?

M. By conqueſt, in the year 1656, when it was taken from the Spaniards by Penn and Venables. Theſe admirals were ſent by Oliver Cromwell to reduce Hiſpaniola; but failing in that attempt, they made an attack on Jamaica, which they ſoon reduced, and it has ever ſince been ſubject to the crown of Great Britain, and always been a royal government.

S. What religion is eſtabliſhed in the iſland?

M. That of the church of England; but all religions are tolerated.

S. Are there any rivers in Jamaica?

M. Several; but the waters of the principal part of them are unwholeſome: there are ſprings, however, of a better kind. In the plains are found numbers of ſalt fountains, and, a little way from Spaniſh Town, is a hot bath, eſteemed by the natives very ſalutary in many diſorders.

S. Are there any large towns in Jamaica?

M. The principal are, Kingſton, St. Jago de la Vega, or Spaniſh Town, and Port Paſſage.

S. I ſhould be glad of a ſhort account of theſe places.

M. Kingſton, the new capital of this iſland, is ſituated, on the bay of Port Royal. The harbour is one of the moſt commodious in America, being about three leagues broad in moſt places, deep enough for a ſhip of 700 tons to lay cloſe to the ſhore, and ſo capacious that a thouſand ſail may ride in ſafety. The entrance is defended by Fort Charles, one of the ſtrongeſt fortifications on the Engliſh iſlands, a battery of ſixty pieces of cannon, and a garriſon of regulars maintained by the crown. The town, which ſtands commodiouſly for freſh water and every other convenience of life, is about a mile long, and half a mile broad; containing ſeveral neat ſquares, and wide ſpacious ſtreets, with others interſecting them at right angles. The houſes, amounting to above ſixteen hundred, are well, and many of them elegantly built, according to the taſte of theſe iſlands, which is only one ſtory with porticos. Here is one church, two Jewiſh ſyna-

gogues, a quaker and various other meeting-houſes. This town ſends three repreſentatives to the aſſembly.

St. Jago de la Vega, or Spaniſh Town, ſtands in a pleaſant valley, on the river Cobre. It contains a conſiderable number of good houſes, one handſome church, a chapel, an exchange, and a commodious ſtone edifice for the governor, who, together with moſt of the principal perſons on the iſland, reſide at this town. The general aſſemblies and courts of juſtice are ſtill held here; and if this is not the largeſt, it may, from the wealth and gay diſpoſition of its inhabitants, be juſtly eſteemed the politeſt place in Jamaica.

Port Paſſage, or Paſſage Fort, is ſituated ſeven miles S. E. of Spaniſh Town, at the mouth of the river Cobre, and derives its name from being the greateſt thoroughfare in the iſland. It is defended by a ſmall fort, and is the only place where boats can be had for Kingſton or Port Royal, on which account there is a great reſort of ſtrangers, and it carries on a briſk trade.

S. You obſerved that Kingſton was the new capital of this iſland; had it ever any other?

M. Yes: Port Royal, the old capital, ſtood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the ſea, formed part of Port Royal harbour, the goodneſs of which induced the inhabitants to build their city on this ſpot, though it was a hot, dry ſand, and produced none of the neceſſaries of life. It ſoon, however, became a place at once remarkable for its trade, and the diſſolute conduct of its inhabitants; and, in 1692, it exceeded every thing of its ſize in wealth and luxury. But in the month of June, the ſame year, an earthquake, which ſhook the whole iſland to its foundation, totally overwhelmed this town. The water guſhed out from the vaſt openings in the earth, and tumbled the people in heaps; but ſome of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houſes, and were afterwards ſaved by boats. Several ſhips were loſt in the harbour, and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock, was carried over the tops of ſinking houſes; but, fortunately, ſhe did not overſet, and afforded a retreat to ſome hundreds of people, who by that means ſaved their lives. After the conſternation, occaſioned by this ſhocking ſcene of horror and deſolation, had ſome time ſubſided, the town was rebuilt; but about ten years after, it was again deſtroyed by fire. The extraordinary

extraordinary convenience of the harbour, however, induced the inhabitants to raiſe it a third time; and a third time it was reduced to a heap of rubbiſh by a hurricane, the moſt terrible on record. This happened in the year 1722, and almoſt ruined the iſland. Such repeated cataſtrophes induced the inhabitants to abandon the place; and accordingly they built Kingſton, on the oppoſite ſide of the bay. But Port Royal is now in ſome meaſure rebuilt, its excellent ſituation having tempted many to ſettle on this ſeemingly devoted ſpot, at the imminent riſk of their lives and fortunes.

2. *Barbadoes.*

S. What is the ſituation of Barbadoes?

M. It is the moſt eaſterly of all the Weſt India iſlands; and lies in 13 degrees north latitude, and 59 degrees weſt longitude. It is not above twenty-one miles in length, and fourteen in breadth.

S. How long have the Engliſh been in poſſeſſion of Barbadoes?

M. Ever ſince the year 1625. When they firſt landed on the iſland, there was not the leaſt veſtige of its having ever been inhabited, even by ſavages. There was no kind of beaſt, either of paſture or of prey. No fruit, no herb, no root proper for the ſubſiſtence of human life. The iſland was one continued foreſt, the trees ſo large, and their wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, that the utmoſt labour was neceſſary to clear the ground. Some gentlemen of ſmall fortune in England, by unremitted perſeverance, however, ſurmounted every difficulty, and rendered the iſland a noble acquiſition to their country.

S. Is the air ſalutary?

M. Much more ſo than that of Jamaica, but, like that, Barbadoes has ſuffered greatly by hurricanes and other calamities.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. Very fertile, and produces indigo, ſugars, cotton, and moſt of the fruits and vegetables found in Jamaica.

S. Do the inhabitants carry on any commerce?

M. Yes, a very large one, in ſugars, cotton, indigo, ginger, citron water, and ſeveral other articles. The exports

have been calculated at 500,000l. annually; and the number of inhabitants at 16,000 natives, and 60,000 negroes.

S. Are there any towns that deſerve particular deſcription in Barbadoes?

M. Only Bridge Town, which is ſituated on Carliſle-bay, in the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland. The bay is large enough to contain five hundred ſail of ſhips, and has twenty fathom water, ſo clear that the bottom is viſible, but at the ſame time ſo rocky, that cables are always buoyed up with caſks. The town, which is eſteemed the fineſt and largeſt in all the Caribbee iſlands, takes its name from a bridge in the eaſtern part of it, erected over the paſſage that carries the waters from the neighbouring marſhes after the rains. It contains a great number of good dwelling-houſes, ſtore-houſes, and ſhops; a large church, with an excellent ring of bells, and a curious clock: a convenient building, handſomely endowed for a free-ſchool, with an allowance for twenty poor widows: a college, erected and endowed by Colonel Chriſtopher Codrington, for propagating the Chriſtian religion among the negroes in this and the neighbouring Caribbees, and for teaching ſurgery and phyſic: and about the town and bay are ſeveral forts and batteries. The governor's houſe ſtands about a mile out of the town, in a very unhealthy ſituation, being ſurrounded with marſhes. This town was burnt down in 1668; and ſuffered alſo greatly by fires in 1756, 1766, and 1767. In October 1780 it was nearly deſtroyed by a hurricane, but has ſince been rebuilt, though it is ſcarcely yet reſtored to its former ſplendor. It is the ſeat of the governor, council, aſſembly, and court of chancery.

3. *St. Chriſtopher's.*

S. What is the ſituation of this iſland?

M. It lies in 17 degrees north latitude, and 62 degrees weſt longitude. It is about twenty miles in length, and ſeven in breadth.

S. By whom was this iſland diſcovered?

M. By Chriſtopher Columbus, who alſo gave it the name it ſtill bears. Our ſeamen call it St. Kitt's.

S. Is there any thing remarkable in this iſland?

M. No. It was ſettled by the Spaniards, but that nation abandoned it as unworthy of their attention. In 1625, both

Engliſh and French adventurers flocked thither; but, by the peace of Utrecht, the whole iſland was entirely ceded to the former. It was taken by the French in 1782; but reſtored at the peace the following year.

S. What is the produce of St. Chriſtopher's?

M. Sugars cotton, ginger, and all ſorts of tropical fruits. It is ſaid to produce nearly as much ſugar as Barbadoes.

S. Does this iſland contain any large towns?

M. Baſſeterre, the capital, is a very conſiderable one. It is ſituated on a cape, on each ſide of which is a bay for ſhipping, ſecured by Londonderry fort towards the eaſt, and by ſix batteries raiſed at different places, and mounting forty-three cannon, on the weſt.

4. *Antigua.*

S. What is the ſituation of this iſland?

M. It lies in 17 degrees north latitude, and 61 degrees weſt longitude. It is of a circular form, and about twenty miles diameter.

S. What is the air and ſoil of Antigua?

M. Much the ſame with all our Weſt-India iſlands; they differ very little.

S. What is there remarkable in this iſland?

M. Its capital, St. John, is the reſidence of the governor of the Leeward-Iſlands; and it has one of the beſt harbours in the Weſt-Indies.

5. *Nevis and Montſerrat.*

S. Why are theſe two iſlands mentioned together?

M. Becauſe they lie contiguous, and are too ſmall to merit particular deſcriptions: neither of them exceeds eighteen miles in circumference.

S. Is there any thing on theſe iſlands that deſerves particular mention?

M. No. The inhabitants in theſe, like thoſe of the other iſlands, chiefly apply themſelves to the culture of the ſugar cane, the produce of which forms their principal exports

S. What towns of note are there in theſe iſlands?

M. The chief place in Nevis is Charles-Town, a conſiderable town, defended by a fort of the ſame name. It has a weekly market held every Sunday morning. There are none worth mentioning in Montſerrat.

6. *Barbuda.*

S. What is the ſituation of Barbuda?

M. It lies in 18 degrees north latitude, and 61 degrees weſt longitude, and is about twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth.

S. To whom does this iſland belong?

M. To the Codrington family. It has no direct trade with England, and the inhabitants employ themſelves chiefly in huſbandry, and raiſing of cattle for the uſe of the neighbouring iſles. The number of people on the iſland is about fifteen hundred.

7. *Anguilla.*

S. Is Anguilla a large iſland?

M. No; it is ſmall; not more than thirty miles in length, and ten in breadth.

S. What is its ſituation?

M. It lies in 19 degrees north latitude, and 62 degrees, 20 minutes weſt longitude. It is very level, but the climate nearly the ſame with that of the other iſlands.

S. Of what conſequence is this iſland to England?

M. None: it is very thin of inhabitants, and they are employed in huſbandry and feeding of cattle.

8. *Dominica.*

S. What is the ſituation of Dominica?

M. It lies in 16 degrees north latitude, and 62 degrees weſt longitude. It is about twenty-eight miles in length, and thirteen in breadth.

S. Why is it called Dominica?

M. Becauſe it was diſcovered on a Sunday. Columbus, who firſt ſaw the iſland, gave it the appellation.

S. To what nation does this iſland belong?

M. To the Engliſh; who took it in 1761, and had it confirmed to them by the peace of 1763. The French took

took it in 1778, but reſtored it in 1783. In 1795, they made an unſucceſsful attempt to regain it; but all the Frenchmen that landed, were either killed or taken priſoners. It contains large plains, fruitful vallies, fine rivulets, and produces very valuable trees. The capital is Charlotte-Town, formerly Roſeau.

9. *Martinico.*

S. What is the ſituation of Martinico?

M. It lies in between 14 and 15 degrees of north latitude, and in 61 degrees of weſt longitude, about 30 leagues north-weſt of Barbadoes.

S. What are its dimenſions?

M. About ſixty miles in length, and thirty in breadth.

S. Is there any thing remarkable in this iſland?

M. Nothing; the air, ſoil, produce, and every other article, is the ſame with thoſe of our other Weſt-India iſlands.

10. *St. Vincent.*

S. What is the ſituation of St. Vincent?

M. It lies in 13 degrees north latitude, and 61 degrees weſt longitude.

S. Is it a large iſland?

M. No; it is not above twenty-four miles in length, and eighteen in breadth.

S. Does this iſland produce any thing worthy of enquiry?

M. No; its only recommendation is being exceedingly fruitful: indigo, in particular, thrives to admiration.

11. *Granada and the Grenadines.*

S. What is the ſituation of theſe iſlands?

M. Granada lies in 12 degrees north latitude, and in 62 degrees weſt longitude. The Grenades, or Granadillos, form a cluſter of ſmall iſles in the neighbourhood of Granada. The latter is about thirty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth.

S. What is there remarkable in theſe iſlands?

M. Granada enjoys the happineſs of not being ſubject to hurricanes, has ſeveral exceeding fine bays, harbours, and rivers; and produces excellent ſugar, tobacco, and indigo. This iſland, together with the Grenadines, which are ſituated near it, and yield the ſame produce, were ceded to Great Britain in 1763, taken by the French during the American war, but reſtored to Great Britain at the peace of 1783.

12. *Tobago.*

S. What is the ſituation of Tobago?

M. It is the moſt ſoutherly of all the Britiſh iſlands in the Weſt-Indies, lying in 11 degrees north latitude, and 59 degrees weſt longitude. It is about thirty-two miles in length, and nine in breadth. It is not ſubject to hurricanes.

S. Is there any thing deſirable on this iſland?

M. Since it has been in our poſſeſſion, it has been of very little advantage: but the ſoil is ſaid to be capable of producing ſugar, cinnamon, nutmegs, and gum copal.

Thus have I given you a ſhort, but, I hope, a ſatisfactory account of all the Weſt-India iſlands belonging to Great-Britain. We will now proceed to thoſe ſituated on the coaſt of America.

13. *Newfoundland.*

S. What is the ſituation of Newfoundland?

M. It lies to the eaſt of the gulph of St. Laurence, between 46 and 52 degrees of north latitude and 53 and 59 degrees of weſt longitude. It is ſeparated from Labrador by the ſtraits of Belleiſle, and from Nova-Scotia by the gulph of St. Laurence.

S. Is it a large iſland?

M. It is 350 miles in length, and 200 miles in breadth.

S. What is the nature of the air and ſoil of this iſland?

M. The air is intenſely cold in winter, and hot in ſummer, and the coaſts are very ſubject to almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet. In thoſe parts of the iſland with

with which we are acquainted, the ſoil is very rocky and barren.

S. What renders this iſland valuable?

M. The cod fiſhery, carried on upon the banks in its neighbourhood. An amazing number of veſſels are employed in this fiſhery, which is juſtly eſteemed our chief nurſery for ſeamen; and, excluſive of this advantage, it is computed to add three hundred thouſand pounds annually to the national ſtock, in gold and ſilver remitted to us for the cod ſold in the North, Spain, Portugal Italy, and the Levant. The French, before the late revolution, had a very conſiderable ſhare in this fiſhery.

S. Are there any towns in Newfoundland?

M. The moſt conſiderable are Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John, but not one of them merits a particular deſcription.

14. *Cape Breton.*

S. What is the ſituation of Cape Breton?

M. It lies in the gulph of St Laurence, in 47 degrees north latitude, and 62 degrees weſt longitude.

S. Is it a large iſland?

M. It is pretty conſiderable, being 110 miles in length, and about 70 in breadth.

S. Is the iſland fertile?

M. No: the ſoil in general is better than that of Newfoundland but never produced any thing valuable except the trees of which there are vaſt forests, and many of them excellent timber. Large veins of pit-coal are found in the mountains.

S. Is this iſland of any advantage to England?

M. Not immediately; but by the reduction of it, which happened in 1758, the French are deprived of every ſea-port which afforded ſhelter to their Weſt-India trading ſhips: and, conſequently, in time of war, they muſt be greatly expoſed to our privateers.

S. Is there any town of note upon this iſland?

M. Louiſburg was once remarkable, and is ſuppoſed to have one of the fineſt ports in America the entrance to which is between two ſmall iſlands, and not above 200 fathoms broad. This was once a very ſtrong place; but the

the Engliſh having ſubdued it, in 1758, in order to prevent the French from ever ſettling there again, all the fortifications were demoliſhed.

15. *St. John's.*

S. What is the ſituation of the iſland of St. John?

M. It lies in 47 degrees north latitude, and 61 degrees weſt longitude.

S. Is it a large iſland?

M. It is about 60 miles in length, and 35 miles in breadth.

S. Is it a valuable iſland?

M. It is conſidered as ſuch: it has many large rivers, is finely ſituated in the gulph of St. Laurence, beyond the reach of the fogs that riſe from the banks of Newfoundland, and ſo exceedingly fertile, that, when the French were in poſſeſſion of it, they termed it the granary of Canada, which it furniſhed with corn, beef, and pork.

S. Is it now inhabited?

M. It is; and the number of people increaſes daily. It has been made a ſeparate government.

16. *Bermudas or Summer-Iſlands.*

S. What incidents gave riſe to theſe names?

M. They acquired the name of the Bermudas iſlands from one John Bermudas, a Spaniard, who firſt diſcovered them; and the Summer iſlands from Sir George Summers, who was ſhipwrecked on them in 1609, in his paſſage to Virginia.

S. What is their ſituation?

M. They lie in 32 degrees north latitude, and 65 degrees weſt longitude.

S. Are the Bermudas large iſlands?

M. No; they are very ſmall, not containing in the whole above 20,000 acres.

S. Are they very fertile?

M. Exceedingly ſo; and the ſoil admirably adapted to the culture of vines, which is not, however, attended to by the inhabitants, their chief employment being in the building of veſſels. The air, and the variety and richneſs of their productions, all conſpire to render the Bermudas a moſt deſirable habitation.

S. Is

S. Is there any town worth mentioning among theſe iſlands?

M. St. George, the capital, is a very good one. It is ſituated in an iſland of the ſame name, and defended by ſeven or eight forts mounted with ſeventy pieces of cannon. It contains about 500 houſes, and is decorated with a handſome church and other public buildings.

17. *Lucay's or Bahama Iſlands.*

S. What is the ſituation of the Bahama iſlands?

M. They lie between 22 and 27 degrees of north latitude, and 73 and 81 degrees of weſt longitude. They extend along the coaſt of Florida down to the iſland of Cuba.

S. Is their number conſiderable?

M. They are ſaid to amount to 5000, but all of them, except Providence, are entirely uninhabited.

S. By what nation was theſe iſlands ſettled?

M. The Engliſh made an unſucceſsful attempt towards it in the reign of Charles II. after which Providence became an harbour for privateers, who infeſted the American trade till the year 1718, when the government thought proper to ſend a fleet, under the command of captain Rogers, to reduce that iſland, which he accompliſhed, and a fort was erected on it. Soon after an independent company was ſtationed there, and ſince that period it has continued to improve; plantations have been formed on ſome of the other iſlands, and the whole ſeems to bid fair for being a ſerviceable ſettlement.

DIALOGUE LXIV.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Florida?

M. It lies between 25 and 32 degrees of north latitude, and 80 and 91 degrees of weſt longitude: being about 500 miles in length, and 440 in breadth.

S. What

S. What are the boundaries of Florida?

M. It is bounded on the north by Georgia, on the ſouth by the Gulph of Florida, on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, and on the weſt by the river Miſſiſſipi.

S. What are the diviſions of Florida?

M. While in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh it was divided into two governments, Eaſt and Weſt Florida, ſeparated by the Appalachicola. Eaſt Florida extends much farther ſouth than Weſt Florida; the Gulph of Mexico waſhing the weſtern coaſt from lat. to lat. 30 N. whereas the moſt ſouthern part of Weſt Florida is in lat. 30 N. St Auguſtine is the chief town of Eaſt, and Penſacola of Weſt Florida.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. What is the nature of the air and climate of Florida?

M. Very pure and wholeſome; and the exceſſive heats, to which it is ſubject, are allayed by refreſhing breezes from the ſea.

S. What are the properties of the ſoil?

M. That of Eaſt Florida, near to and about St. Auguſtine, is by far the moſt unfruitful; yet even there two crops of Indian corn are annually produced. The banks of the rivers which water the Floridas, and the parts contiguous, are of a ſuperior quality, and well adapted to the culture of rice and corn. The interior country, which is high and pleaſant, abounds with wood of every kind, particularly white and red oak, laurel, magnolia, cypreſs, and red and white cedar.

2. *Rivers and Commerce.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers?

M. The Miſſiſſippi, the Mobile, the Appalachicola, and St. John's.

S. Is there any commerce in Florida?

M. Very little, and even that little in a very unſettled ſtate.

3. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are found in the Floridas?

M. In the forests and deserts are found several species of wild beasts, as the panther, wild cat, buffalo, fox, hare, goat, rabbit, otter, racoon, flying squirrel, armadillo, opossum, guano, and several species of serpents. Birds are numerous, and in variety; among others are found the crane, heron, goose, wild-duck, pigeon, partridge, thrush, jay, hawk, and maccaw. The rivers abound in fish, but are at the same time infested with voracious alligators.

S. Are there any vegetable productions?

M. Yes, of various kinds, particularly rice, indigo, Indian corn, garden vegetables, oranges, lemons, and other fruits are all produced here in great perfection, and in prodigious plenty.

4. *Historical Events.*

S. To what nation do the Floridas belong?

M. To Spain. In the year 1564, the French began to form a small establishment in Florida, from which they were driven the year following by the Spaniards, who then began to form settlements themselves. In the year 1763, Florida was ceded to England in exchange for the Havannah, which had been taken from the Spaniards. But, during the American war, in the year 1781, Florida was again taken by the Spaniards, and confirmed to them by the peace of 1783.

5. *Chief Towns.*

S. Please to give me some account of the principal places in the Floridas?

M. In East Florida the chief town is St. Augustine, situated on the eastern coast of the peninsula, about seventy leagues from the Gulph of Florida and the channel of Bahama, thirty miles south of the river Alatamaha, and forty-seven in the same direction from the town and river of Savannah. It lies along the shore, at the bottom of a hill, in form of a parallelogram, the streets cutting each other at right angles.

angles. The port is formed by an iſland and a long point of land, almoſt divided from the continent by a river, which falls into the ſea two miles ſouth of the town. The entrance, which is between theſe, is about one mile and a quarter over, but extremely ſhallow.

In Weſt Florida and Louiſiania, the only places worth mentioning are Mobile and Penſacola. The former lies on the river of the ſame name, about one hundred miles from its mouth, and ſeventy from the Miſſiſſippi. It is regularly built, and of an oblong figure. Its harbour is ſaid to be very indifferent, though there is an eaſy entrance to it from the Gulph of Mexico, and conſequently an opportunity of carrying on an advantageous trade.

Penſacola ſtands on the weſt ſide of the bay to which it gives its name, about ten leagues eaſt of Dauphin Iſle, at the mouth of the river Mobile. The harbour is the beſt upon all this coaſt of the Gulph, being large, ſafe from all winds, with four fathom water at the entrance, and ſeven or eight, farther in. A fine river enters the bay on the eaſt ſide of the harbour, which flows near a hundred miles through the country, after being formed by the junction of two other rivers. It contains ſeveral hundred habitations, and the public buildings are ſpacious and elegant.

DIALOGUE LXV.

OLD MEXICO, *or* NEW SPAIN.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Old Mexico?

M. Between 28 and 30 degrees north latitude, and between 83 and 110 degrees weſt longitude.

S. What are the dimenſions of this country?

M. It is about two thouſand miles in length, and ſix hundred in breadth.

S. What are its boundaries?

M. New Mexico or Grenada on the north, the gulph of Mexico on the north-eaſt, Terra Firma on the ſouth-eaſt, and the Pacific ocean on the ſouth-weſt.

S. Into

S. Into what number of audiences is it divided?
M. Into three, viz.

Audiences.	*Chief Towns.*
Galicia,	Guadalajara.
Mexico proper,	Mexico.
Guatimala,	New Guatimala.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air ſalutary?
M. It is better in ſome places than in others, but in none very deſirable.
S. What is the nature of the ſoil?
M. It differs greatly; but in moſt places it might be turned to good account, if the inhabitants were induſtrious enough to cultivate it.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are there found in Mexico?
M. Great plenty of ſheep, ſome black cattle, great numbers of hogs, deer, mooſe deer, pecorees, warees, ounces, tigers, wild cats, beavers, racoons, ſloths, armadillos, and flying ſquirrels. The birds of this country are the macaw, the quam, the curaſoe, the cardinal, the humming bird, and ſeveral others which I have already mentioned in the accounts of Britiſh America. The fiſh likewiſe, are the ſame. Mexico produces great quantities of cochineal.
S. What are the vegetable productions of this country?
M. The ſame as thoſe of the Weſt Indies, already deſcribed.

3. *Rivers and Mines.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers?
M. Hondo, Palmas, Panuco, and Guadalajara.
S. Are there any mines in Mexico?
M. No country in the world boaſts ſuch mines of gold and ſilver, theſe valuable metals forming the chief articles in its commerce;

commerce; beſides which, there are iron, alum, ſulphur, and ſeveral other mines which yield different kinds of mineral and metallic ſubſtances.

4. *Inhabitants and Commerce.*

S. What is the character of the Mexicans?

M. The preſent inhabitants may be properly divided into Whites, Indians, and Negroes. The firſt are either born in Old Spain, and ſettled in Mexico, or they are born in New Spain, and diſtinguiſhed by the name of Creoles; which appellation is likewiſe given to the white natives of our Weſt Indies. The Indians who, when the Spaniards firſt diſcovered America, were a brave people, are now a dejected and miſerable ſet of beings; ſo that they, from oppreſſion, and the Creoles, from nature, are equally indolent, weak, and effeminate. The Whites, from their being born in Europe, think themſelves much ſuperior to either of theſe claſſes, and are chiefly employed in the affairs of government and trade. The Negroes, on whom all the ſlavery falls, reſemble thoſe in other parts of the world.

S. In what articles does the commerce of the inhabitants conſiſt?

M. In gold, ſilver, cochineal, cacao, venella, and cotton.

5. *Government and Revenues.*

S. What is the government of this province?

M. It is adminiſtered by tribunals, called audiences, in which the viceroy, appointed by the king of Spain, always preſides.

S. What are the revenues of Mexico ſuppoſed to amount to annually?

M. About twenty-four millions of our money.

S. I ſhould be glad of ſome account of the chief towns in Mexico?

M. There are only three of any note, viz. Mexico, Acapulco, and Vera Cruz.

Mexico is ſituated in the midſt of a great lake of its own name, a hundred and ſeventy miles weſt of the Gulph of Mexico.

Mexico. It has neither gates or walls, but in point of regularity exceeds moſt cities in Europe, and is joined to the continent by five great cauſeways. The ſtreets are ſtraight, and ſo exactly diſpoſed that from any part of the town the whole may be taken in at one view. All the buildings are convenient, and the churches, convents, and public edifices, magnificent beyond deſcription. But what moſt engages the attention of a ſtranger, is the vaſt quantity of jewels, gold and ſilver plate, and toys expoſed to ſale in the ſtreets, together with the moſt valuable commodities of Europe and Aſia. The number of inhabitants are computed at two hundred thouſand, and are ſaid to draw annually from the mines ten millions of money; notwithſtanding which, the people are in general poor, for they uſually live beyond their fortunes, and terminate a life of profuſion in the moſt extreme indigence.

Acapulco is ſituated in a bay of the South Sea, about 210 miles ſouth-eaſt from Mexico. It is a large ill-built town, great part of which conſiſts of warehouſes, it being the port to which the annual Lima and Manilla ſhips repair; and during that ſeaſon the town is ſo crowded with ſtrangers, that great numbers are obliged to pitch tents in the neighbourhood for their accommodation. The haven is large and commodious, and the entrance ſecured by a flat iſland running acroſs, at each end of which is a deep channel, ſufficiently broad for the largeſt veſſels. The only inconvenience is, that ſhips muſt enter by the ſea-wind, and go out by the land-breeze, which ſeldom fail of ſucceeding each other alternately, ſo that they are frequently blown off to ſea, after repeated attempts to make the harbour.

Vera Cruz ſtands on the gulph of Mexico, about ſeventy leagues from the capital. It is indebted both to nature and art for ſtrength, being the great mart of all the Spaniſh trade in the north ſea, and has a ſafe, commodious, though not a large harbour. A prodigious trade is carried on here, not only with Mexico, but by Mexico with the Eaſt Indies, and alſo with Old Spain. The warehouſes are conſtantly full of the commodities and manufactures of Europe, Aſia, and America. After the arrival of the flota and galleons from Old Spain, there is a great fair, which ſometimes continues for three weeks; during which time the town is crowded; but that once over, it appears like a deſert, the air

air being ſo unhealthy, that none but thoſe who are obliged to it reſide there conſtantly.

DIALOGUE LXVI.

NEW MEXICO, *including* CALIFORNIA.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of theſe places?

M. Between the 23d and 43d degrees of north latitude, and 94th and 126th degrees of weſt longitude.

S. What are their dimenſions?

M. They are about 2000 miles in length, and 1600 in breadth.

S. By what places are they bounded?

M. By Old Mexico and the Pacific Ocean on the ſouth, by the ſame ocean on the weſt, by Louiſiana on the eaſt, and by unknown lands on the north.

S. How are they divided?

M. In the following manner:

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
North-eaſt diviſion,	New Mexico, proper,	Santa Fe.
South-eaſt diviſion,	Apacheira,	St. Antonio.
South diviſion,	Sonora,	Tuape.
Weſt diviſion,	California, a peninſula,	St. Juan.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of theſe countries ſalutary?

M. In California, towards the ſea coaſts, it is very hot in ſummer; but as theſe countries lie chiefly within the temperate zone, the air is far from being unwholeſome.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. Very rich and fertile.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. Do theſe countries produce any remarkable vegetables?

M. Yes,

M. Yes, excellent grain, herbs, flowers, fruit-trees, corn, and vines. Every morning in California a great quantity of dew falls upon the roſe leaves, which candies to a ſubſtance reſembling manna, as ſweet as refined ſugar, but not ſo white.

S. What animals are there?

M. Thoſe common to America; beſides which there are two ſorts of animals almoſt peculiar to thoſe countries, one of which is a ſingular kind of ſheep; and the other a quadruped about the ſize of a calf, with a head like a ſtag, and horns reſembling thoſe of a ram, the hair is long, and the hoofs are like thoſe of an ox. Fiſh and fowl, both wild and tame, are found here in great plenty.

3. *Inhabitants and Commerce.*

S. By whom are theſe countries inhabited?

M. By a few Spaniards, but the principal part are Indians, who have been in ſome meaſure civilized by the miſſionaries ſent from Spain to teach them Chriſtianity; theſe fathers have likewiſe inſtructed them in the culture of corn, and the art of making wine.

S. In what does their commerce conſiſt?

M. This is in its infant ſtate, but a large quantity of corn and wine is ſent from hence to Old Mexico.

4. *Mines.*

S. Are there any mines in this part of the Spaniſh ſettlements?

M. The Spaniards have two colonies in New Mexico, in which there are ſome valuable mines of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, and diſcoveries of new ones are daily making. In the centre of the country there are plains which yield ſalt as clear and almoſt as firm as cryſtal. On the coaſt of California there is a pearl fiſhery of great value.

5. *Hiſtory and Government.*

S. By whom were theſe countries diſcovered?

M. By the Spaniards; but Sir Francis Drake took poſſeſſion of California in the year 1578, and had his right to it

it confirmed by the principal chief of the country; a right, however, which the Engliſh have not thought proper to aſſert, and the Spaniards remain in peaceable poſſeſſion of it.

S. Of what nature is the government?

M. It differs very little from that of Old Mexico.

DIALOGUE LXVII.

SOUTH AMERICA.

SPANISH DOMINIONS:

Terra Firma, or Caſtile del Oro.

S. HOW is Terra Firma ſituated?

M. Between the equator and 12 degrees of north latitude, and 60 and 82 of weſt longitude.

S. Is it of any conſiderable extent?

M. It is about 1400 miles in length, and 700 in breadth.

S. What are its boundaries?

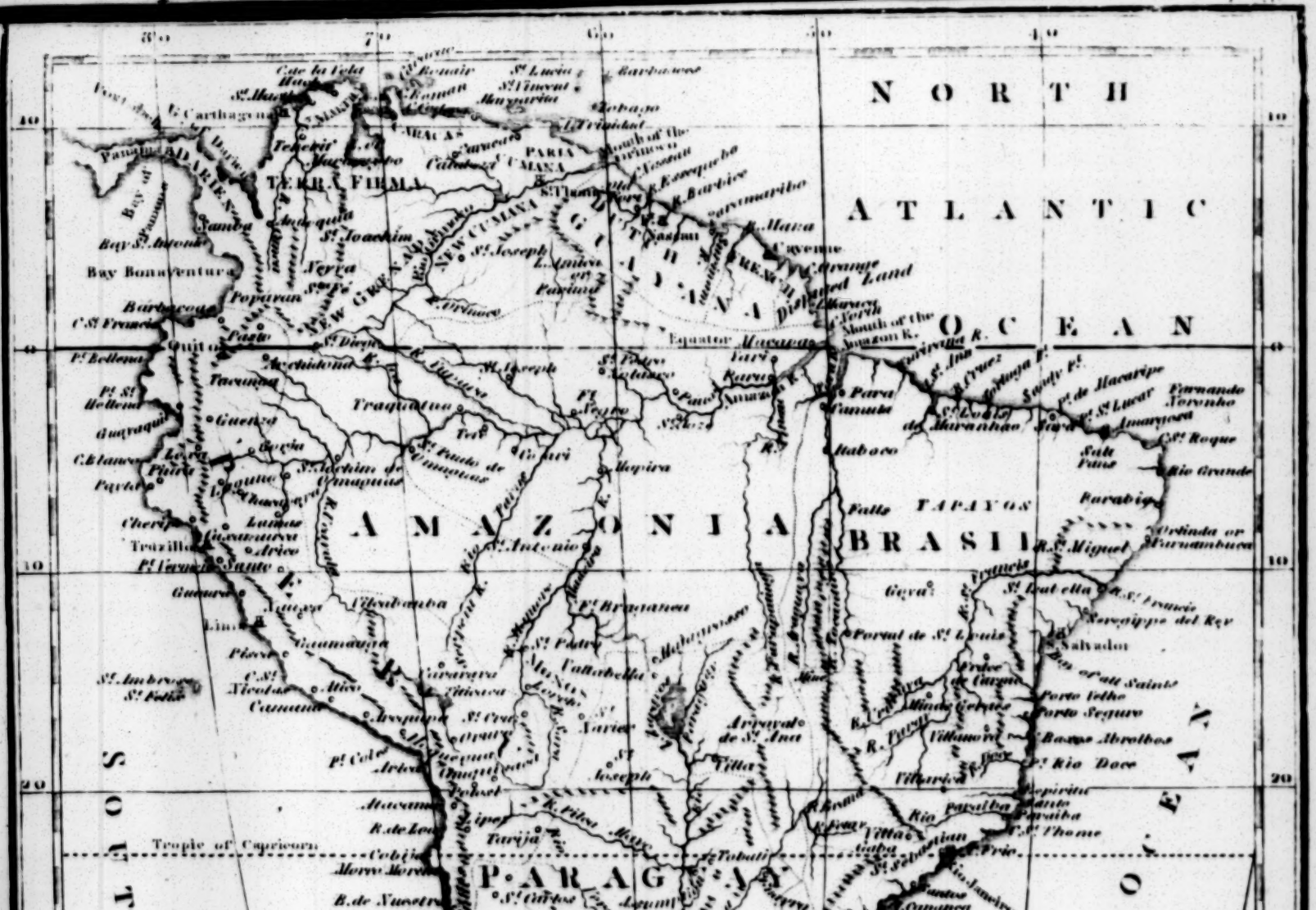
M. Part of the Atlantic Ocean on the north, the ſame ſea and Surinam on the eaſt, the Pacific Ocean and New Spain on the weſt, and the country of the Amazons and Peru on the ſouth.

S. In what manner is it divided?

M. As in the following table:

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
The north diviſion contains the provinces of	Terra Firma proper, or Darien,	Porto Bello.
		Panama.
	Carthagena,	Carthagena.
	St. Martha,	St. Martha.
	Rio de la Hacha,	Rio de la Hacha.
	Venezuela,	Venezuela.
	Comana,	Comana.
	New Andaluſia or Paria,	St. Thomas.

Diviſions


NORTH
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
TERRA FIRMA
NEW GRANADA
PARIA
CUMANA
GUIANA
Disputed Land
AMAZONIA
BRASIL
PARAGUAY
Equator
Tropic of Capricorn
Cape la Vela
Carthagena
Bay of Panama
Bay Buenaventura
Barbacoas
C. St Francis
Quito
Pasto
Popayan
Neyva
Santa Fé
Tacunga
Guaranda
Cuenca
Loxa
Piura
Payta
Cherip
Truxillo
Sante
Guayaquil
Bay St Antonio
Samba
Andaqui
St Joachim
St Joseph
Lamiso or Pariana
Cayenne
Orange
Surinam
Berbice
Essequebo
Demerara
Barima
Maranon
Tocantins
Para
Gurupa
Macapa
Fernando Noronha
Rio Grande
Paraiba
Olinda or Maranambuca
Bahia
Porto Seguro
Rio Doce
Espiritu Santo
Rio Parayba
Rio Janeiro
St Vincent
Barbadoes
Trinidad
Margarita
Tortuga
Curaçoa
Bonaire
St Lucia
Zetapa
Mouth of the Amazon R.
Falls TAPAYOS
Salt Pans
Salvador
All Saints
Porto Velho
Bassas Abrolhos
Rio Dece
Villa Rica
Villa Real
Villa Bella
Villa
Arrayal de St Anne
Arrayal de St Louis
Vera Cruz
Santa Cruz
Mato Grosso
Chiquitos
Moxos
Paraguay R.
Rio Plata
Rio Vermejo
Rio Pilcomayo
Rio Bermejo
Rio Salado
Rio Colorado
Rio Negro
Rio Uruguay
Rio Tapajos
Rio Madeira
Rio Negro
Rio Yapura
Rio Putumayo
Rio Napo
Rio Tigre
Rio Pastaza
Rio Morona
Rio Huallaga
Rio Ucayale
Rio Xingu
Rio Tocantins
Rio Paraguay
Rio Guapore
Rio Itenez
Rio Pilcomayo
Rio Vermejo
Rio Bermejo
Rio Salado
Rio Colorado
Rio Negro
Rio Uruguay
Rio Tapajos
Rio Madeira
Rio Negro
Rio Yapura
Rio Putumayo
Rio Napo
Rio Tigre
Rio Pastaza
Rio Morona
Rio Huallaga
Rio Ucayale
Rio Xingu
Rio Tocantins
Rio Paraguay
Rio Guapore
Rio Itenez


SOUTH
AMERICA.
PARAGAY
CHILI
PACIFIC OCEAN
SOUTH ATLANTIC
Tropic of Capricorn
Equator
Coquimbo
Valparaiso
Conception
Valdivia
Chiloe I.
Port St. Julian
Falkland I.
Staten I.
Cape Horn
Rio Janeiro
Rio de Reparo
Lagoon
Buenos Ayres
Monte Video
Maldonado
Rio Grande
Rio de la Plata
Patagonia
Terra del Fuego
Magellan
Sebald de Weert I.
Pepys I.
Barnevelt I.
Le Maire Str.
Strait of Le Maire
Strait of Magellan
Cape Virgins
Cape Blanco
Cape Corrientes
Cape St. Antonio
Cape St. Mary
Cape St. Francis
Cape St. Catherine
Cape St. Vincent
Cape St. Thome
Cape St. Augustin
Cape St. Roque
Cape Frio
Cape St. Sebastian
Cape Blanco
Cape Negro
Cape Horn
Cape Pillar
Cape Gloucester
Cape Noir
Cape Barbara
Cape Forward
Cape Monmouth
Cape Deseado
Cape Gallego
Cape Froward
Cape Pilar
Cape Tres Montes
Cape Penas
Cape Chacao
Cape Blanco
Cape Corrientes
Cape Negro
Cape Blanco
Cape Corrientes
Cape Blanco
Cape Corrientes
Cape Blanco
Cape Corrientes

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
The ſouth diviſion contains the provinces of	New Granada,	Santa Fé de Bagota.
	Popayan,	Popayan.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air ſalutary?

M. Quite the contrary; for the rains are ſo violent, that the country is often entirely covered with water; after which, the violent heat raiſes ſuch vapours, that the air becomes exceedingly unwholeſome.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. In the inland parts it is very rich, but towards the ſea-coaſt a barren ſand.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. Are there any remarkable animals in this part of South America?

M. Thoſe of North-America are all found here; but the ſloth is an animal peculiar to this country. In Campeachy, the monkeys are very numerous, and generally travel twenty or more in company.

S. What are the vegetable productions?

M. Corn, ſugar, fruits, gums, paſture, and ſeveral kinds of trees; among which the moſt remarkable are, the caobo, the cedar, the balſam, and the manzinillo; the laſt is ſo impregnated with poiſon, that even ſleeping under its ſhade cauſes ſwellings, and the greateſt tortures in the human body.

3. *Mountains, Rivers, and Mines.*

S. Are there any remarkable mountains in this country?

M. Several; ſome of which are ſaid to exceed that of Teneriffe in height.

S. What are the names of the principal rivers?

 M. Darien,

M. Darien, Chagre, Santa Maria, Rio Grande or Magdalena, Maricaibo, and Oronoque.

S. Have any valuable mines been diſcovered?

M. Yes, ſeveral; particularly of ſilver, iron, copper, emeralds, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones; exceeding fine pearls are found on the coaſt of Terra Firma, particularly in the bay of Panama.

4. *Inhabitants and Commerce.*

S. By what people is this country inhabited?

M. There is very little difference between them and the inhabitants of Mexico; except a particular ſpecies of Indians, who have large weak blue eyes, which cannot bear the light of the ſun; and, from their ſeeing beſt by moon-light, they are called the moon-eyed Indians. The reſt of the inhabitants are a mixture of Spaniards, Indians, and Negroes.

S. In what does the commerce of this country conſiſt?

M. In pearls and precious ſtones, ſilver, iron, copper, valuable drugs, cacao, vanilla, indigo, pimento, guaiacum, ſarſaparilla, balſam of Peru, &c.

In the haven of Carthagena, which is the beſt defended of any in Spaniſh America, the fleet of galleons, conſiſting generally of eight large ſhips and twelve merchantmen, arrive annually, laden with military ſtores for Peru, on account of the Spaniſh government; and every kind of merchandize, on a private account. As ſoon as it comes into the haven, expreſſes are diſpatched to Panama, Porto Bello, and all the adjacent towns, to bring their merchandize, and meet the galleons at Porto Bello, to which place they always reſort, and a fair is held for about a fortnight. When the galleons have diſpoſed of their cargoes in return for the riches of theſe countries, they ſet ſail for the Havannah, where they rendezvous with thoſe from La Vera Cruz: and, when provided with a proper convoy, all ſail in company for Old Spain.

S. Are there any towns of note in Terra Firma?

M. Several; particularly Panama, Porto Bello, and Carthagena.

S. Will you favour me with a ſhort deſcription of each?

M. Ve

M. Very readily; I am always pleaſed to ſatisfy your inquiries.

Panama, the capital of Terra Firma proper, is ſituated upon a capacious bay, to which it gives its own name; and has an excellent harbour, well ſecured againſt ſtorms by a number of ſurrounding iſlands. In 1737, Old Panama being entirely deſtroyed by fire, the preſent city was erected, about four miles eaſt of the former, and the houſes built of ſtone; before that accident they were all of wood. It is ſtrongly fortified and garriſoned, the walls being mounted with large pieces of cannon. The inhabitants carry on a prodigious trade; for here all the treaſures of gold, ſilver, and other rich merchandize from all parts of Peru and Chili, are brought and lodged in ſtore-houſes, till they can be tranſported to Europe; and the cargoes of the galleons are alſo ſent hither from Porto Bello, to be exported to the ſeveral cities to which they are conſigned. Panama is a biſhop's ſee, the reſidence of the governor of the province, and the ſeat of a royal audience.

Porto Bello is ſituated cloſe to the ſea, on the declivity of a mountain, which ſurrounds the whole harbour. From this harbour the town derives its name: it being ſo capacious, deep, and ſafe, that Columbus gave it the appellation of Porto Bello, or the fine harbour. The entrance is narrow, and defended by ſeveral forts; notwithſtanding which, in 1741, the place was taken by admiral Vernon. The town conſiſts of one ſtreet extending along the ſtrand, with others croſſing it from the declivity of the mountains to the ſhore. It is ſo extremely unhealthy, that few people chuſe to reſide here, except at the time of the fair, which is always held on the arrival of the galleons.

Carthagena, the capital of the province of that name, is a well fortified and noble city, ſtanding on a ſandy iſland, often called a peninſula. It has a good harbour, between the iſland and the main, the entrance to which is at the ſouth-weſt end; but it formerly had another paſſage, called Bocca Chica, which, ſince the attack made upon it by the Engliſh in 1741, has been filled up by order from the court of Spain. The eaſt part of the town has a communication by means of a wooden bridge, with a large ſuburb called Xexemani; built on another iſland,

which is joined to the continent by a bridge of the ſame materials. The city and ſuburbs are defended by fortifications of free-ſtone, conſtructed in the modern form. The ſtreets are ſtraight, broad, uniform, and well-paved; and ſome of the houſes are built of brick, but the chief part of them are of ſtone. A conſiderable trade is carried on in this city; and when the galleons are in the bay, the public ſales are very conſiderable, though greatly inferior to thoſe of Porto Bello.

DIALOGUE LXVIII.

PERU.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Peru?

M. It lies between the equator and 25 degrees of ſouth latitude, and between the 60th and 81ſt degree of weſt longitude.

S. Is its extent conſiderable?

M. It is very great, being nearly 1800 miles in length, and 500 in breadth.

S. What are its limits?

M. It is bounded by Terra Firma on the north, by the eaſtern Cordillera of the Andes on the eaſt, by Chili on the ſouth, and by the Pacific Ocean on the weſt.

S. How is it divided?

M. In the manner expreſſed in the following table:

Diviſions.	*Subdiviſions.*	*Chief Towns.*
The north diviſion,	Quito,	Quito. Payta.
The middle diviſion,	Lima, or Los Reyes,	Lima, Cuſco, and Callao.
The ſouth diviſion,	Los Charcos,	Potoſi. Porco.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Peru ſalutary?

M. In

M. In ſome parts it is; and though the greater part of it lies within the torrid zone, the air is not ſo extremely hot as in other tropical countries, the ſky being generally covered with clouds, which ſhade it from the heat of the ſun. One remarkable circumſtance is, that it never rains in the valleys of this country; but to ſupply this deficiency, a dew falls every night, which refreſhes the vegetable creation, and in thoſe places where the ſoil is rich, produces the greateſt fertility.

S. Of what nature is the ſoil?

M. The valleys in the inland country, and by the banks of rivers and ſtreams, are exceedingly fertile; but near the ſea-coaſt it is generally a dry barren ſand.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. Have they any curious animals in Peru?

M. Several; among which are the lamas, the vicunnas, and the huanucos. From all theſe animals the inhabitants ſhear wool; that of the two firſt is exceedingly fine. The fowl and fiſh do not differ from thoſe of other parts in America.

S. What are the vegetable productions of Peru?

M. Moſt ſpecies of herbs and fruit; and in many places grapes are cultivated, which produce very good wine. The tree which bears the Peruvian, or as it is generally termed the Jeſuit's bark, from having been firſt introduced into Europe by a father of that order, is a native of the mountainous parts of Peru; beſides which there are moſt other uſeful trees. Guinea or Cayenne pepper is produced in great quantities in the vale of Arica.

3. *Mountains and Mines.*

S. Are there any remarkable mountains in Peru?

M. Several; of which the Lanos, the Sierras, and the Andes, are the chief; the height of the laſt has been aſcertained by experiments with the barometer to be more than three miles above the level of the ſea.

S. What mines are there in this country?

M. A great number both of gold and ſilver, particularly of the latter, at Potoſi, where new ones are daily opening; and at a place called Guancavelica, vaſt quan-

tities of quickſilver are found, and form a valuable article of commerce.

4. *Rivers, Commerce, and Manufactures.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers in Peru?

M. The Colanch, the Guiaquil, the Yto, and the Arica; beſides theſe, there are a great number of leſs note.

S. In what does the commerce of Peru chiefly conſiſt?

M. In gold, ſilver, wine, oil, brandy, Vigonia wool, Peruvian, or Jeſuit's bark, balſam of Peru, and Guinea, or Cayenne pepper.

S. Are the inhabitants employed in any manufactures?

M. Yes; of cotton, wool, flax, and leather.

5. *Inhabitants and Government.*

S. What are the people who inhabit Peru?

M. This country, like the other ſettlements contains a mixture of Spaniards, Creoles, Indians, and Negroes, whoſe particular characters I have already deſcribed in the account of Mexico.

S. What is the Peruvian form of government?

M. By a viceroy, whoſe power extends to every part of Peru, except Quito, which has been detached from it. Courts, or audiences, are eſtabliſhed all over the kingdom, for the more eaſy diſtribution of juſtice; and at Lima there is a treaſury-court, for receiving the fifths of the produce of the wines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians.

S. Does Peru contain any remarkable cities?

M. Yes, ſeveral.

S. Will you give me a deſcription of the principal?

M. Very readily, and ſhall begin my account with the capital.

Lima, the capital of this large kingdom, ſtands in the centre of the ſpacious and delightful valley of Rimac, on a river of that name. It is ſurrounded by a brick wall, defended by thirty-four baſtions, and has ſeven gates and three poſterns. The ſtreets are broad, well paved, and run parallel to each other. The houſes are low, but commodious;

modious; and that they may, with the greater ſafety, ſtand the ſhocks of thoſe violent earthquakes to which this city is ſubject, the principal parts are of wood, mortiſed into the roof; the walls are lined on both ſides with wild canes and oſiers, plaiſtered over with clay, and white-waſhed. The roofs are flat, and covered juſt ſufficiently to keep out the wind and rays of the ſun; for it never rains here. Over the river Rimac is a fine ſtone-bridge, having a gate at one end, which forms the entrance into the city, and leads to the grand ſquare. On the eaſt ſide of this ſquare are the archbiſhop's palace, and the cathedral; theſe are higher than any other buildings in the city. On the weſt ſide is the council houſe, under which is the city-priſon; the ſouth ſide is occupied by gentlemen's houſes, which, though but one ſtory high, make a very elegant and uniform appearance; and on the north ſide is the viceroy's palace. The city is ſaid to contain between thirty and forty religious houſes, beſides hoſpitals for men and women; ſeveral colleges and a number of churches. In moſt of the latter are treaſures of immenſe value, conſiſting of gold and ſilver images, ſacred utenſils, tables, and candleſticks, diamonds, pearls, and other precious ſtones; and variety of gold and ſilver ſtuffs, for the veſtments of the prieſts and the coverings of the altars. Here is likewiſe an orphan-houſe, a tribunal of inquiſition, a mint, and an univerſity, which, together with the halls for various lectures, and a theatre for the public acts, form a large, handſome ſquare court, ſurrounded by an arched piazza.

The inhabitants of this city, as of all the others in Spaniſh America, conſiſt of Spaniards, Meſtizoes, Mulattoes, Indians, and Negroes. Before the great earthquake, which happened at Lima in 1746, and almoſt entirely deſtroyed the city, the Spaniſh families were very numerous, there having been, on a moderate computation, not leſs than eighteen thouſand whites, a fourth part of whom conſiſted of the chief nobility in Peru.

Lima, with regard to its magnificence, populouſneſs, commerce, and delightful ſituation; is ſuperior to every other in South America; and were it not ſubject to earthquakes, would be one of the moſt deſirable places of abode in the world. But, unhappily, the interval between

theſe is never of a length ſufficient to obliterate the remembrance of them. They come on very ſuddenly, tho' they never fail to give a ſhort warning of their approach, by a rumbling noiſe in the bowels of the earth, which is immediately ſucceeded by diſmal howlings of the dogs; even the beaſts of burthen, which happen to be paſſing the ſtreets, feel their approach, and, by a natural inſtinct, throw open their legs, the better to ſecure themſelves from falling. Sometimes they are more violent than at others: that which happened on the 28th of October, 1746, nearly deſtroyed the city in the ſpace of three minutes, burying in the ruins thoſe inhabitants, who, by endeavouring to ſave their moſt precious effects, had not made ſufficient haſte into the ſtreets and ſquares. At the ſame time the ſea, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned with ſuch impetuoſity, that the port of Callao, and all the neighbouring country, were laid under water; men, women, and houſes, being ſwept away with the torrent. Nineteen veſſels, out of twenty-three, were ſunk, and the St. Firmin, a frigate, was carried by the force of the waves to a great diſtance up the country. For the ſpace of four months the concuſſions continued with ſhort intervals, and many of them were as violent as the firſt; ſo that before the 24th of October, in the following year, no leſs than four hundred and fifty ſhocks had been felt, and above twelve thouſand people periſhed in the ruins of the city, which, ſince this accident, has never recovered its former ſplendor.

Cuſco, the ancient capital of Peru, is ſituated about three hundred and twenty-ſix miles eaſt of Lima, and was formerly the ſeat of the Incas, at which time it was a large, magnificent, and populous town. It is ſtill a conſiderable place, containing about twenty thouſand inhabitants. The air is ſaid to be pure and wholeſome, and the neighbouring country very pleaſant and fruitful. Manufactures of bays, cotton cloth, and leather, are carried on by the inhabitants; and in the adjacent mountains are mines of gold and ſilver. Nothing now remains of its ancient magnificence.

Quito, the capital of the province of that name, is ſituated between the two chains of the Andes, and is exceeded by no city in this country, but Lima, in extent and populouſneſs.

populouſneſs. It is built on the declivity of a mountain, called Pichincha, the breaches of which are of a conſiderable depth, and run quite through it, ſo that great part of the buildings ſtand upon arches; a circumſtance which renders the ſtreets irregular and extremely uneven, ſome parts of the city being built on the aſcents, deſcents, and ſummits of the breaches, which is a great diſadvantage to its appearance. There are ſeveral ſquares in Quito, the chief of which contains the cathedral, the epiſcopal palace, the town-houſe, and the palace of the audience. In the others the greateſt part of the convents, which are very numerous, are ſituated, and make a very handſome appearance. The four ſtreets, terminating at the angles of the great ſquare, are ſtraight, broad, and handſome; but all the reſt are crooked, and deſtitute both of ſymmetry and order. The principal houſes are very large, and ſome of them have ſpacious and well-contrived apartments, though none exceed one ſtory in height. The doors and windows are remarkably ſmall, and they have always a balcony next the ſtreet. The materials made uſe of at Quito in building, are unburnt bricks and clay, cemented together by a ſubſtance called ſangagua, which is a ſpecies of mortar of uncommon hardneſs, and firſt made uſe of by the Indians. The inhabitants carry on manufactures of cotton wool, and flax, with which they ſupply all the kingdom of Peru. It was nearly deſtroyed by an earthquake in April 1755; but has been rebuilt.

The laſt place in Peru I ſhall mention is Potoſi, ſituated about ſixty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of La Plata, and long celebrated for the rich mines of ſilver found in its neighbourhood. The diſcovery of theſe mines is ſaid to have been owing to the following accident. An Indian, called Hualpa, purſuing ſome wild goats up the mountains, and coming to a ſteep place laid hold of a ſhrub to aſſiſt his aſcent, which yielding to his weight, came up by the roots, and diſcloſed a lump of ſilver. At the ſame time he obſerved large lumps of the metal in the earth, which adhered to the roots of the plant. Hualpa, who lived at Porco, about twenty miles from Potoſi, haſtened home, waſhed the ſilver, and made uſe of it, repairing, when his ſtock was exhauſted, to the mountains for a new ſupply. This continued till an intimate acquaintance of his

obſerving the change in his circumſtances, inquired into the cauſe, and, after repeated importunities, obtained a full diſcovery of the ſecret. For ſome time theſe two men maintained a ſort of partnerſhip, but Hualpa refuſing to reveal his art of purifying the metal, ſo exaſperated his friend, that he immediately acquainted his maſter, who was a Spaniard, with the whole affair, and thereby deprived himſelf, as well as his comrade, of any future advantage. Since that period many of the old mines have been exhauſted, and new ones daily diſcovered; though they are not now ſo rich as formerly. The city is about two leagues in circuit, and very populous. The Spaniards and Creolians here are poſſeſſed of immenſe riches; even their kitchen furniture, plates, &c. being all of maſſy ſilver, and their cloaths of gold and ſilver ſtuffs. Though ſituated in the centre of a barren country, Potoſi is well provided with every neceſſary of life; ſome provinces ſending the beſt of their grain and fruits, others their cattle, and others their manufactures. Thoſe who trade in European commodities reſort to this city as to a market, where they are ſure of converting their merchandize into ſilver. Another ſpecies of commerce carried on at Potoſi, by a particular ſet of people called Aviadores, conſiſts in exchanging coin, towards paying the neceſſary expences of the workmen, for ingots of ſilver.

DIALOGUE LXIX.

CHILI.

S. WHAT is the ſituation and extent of Chili?

M. It is ſituated between 25 and 45 degrees of ſouth latitude, and between 65 and 85 of weſt longitude; being about 1200 miles in length, and 500 in breadth.

S. What are its limits?

M. It is bounded by Peru on the north, by La Plata on the eaſt, by Patagonia on the ſouth, and the Pacific Ocean on the weſt.

S. In what manner is it divided?

M. As in the following table:

Diviſions,

Divisions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*
On the west side of the Andes,	Chili Proper,	St. Jago. Baldivia. Imperial.
On the east side of the Andes,	Cuyo or Cutio,	St. John de Frontiera.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of Chili salutary?

M. It is, and also remarkably clear, serene, and temperate. The want of rain is here supplied by dew, as in Peru.

S. What is the nature of the soil?

M. Remarkably fertile: amazing crops are constantly produced, and the meadows are clothed with the most luxuriant pastures.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What are the animal productions of Chili?

M. There are few beasts of prey, but great plenty of tame cattle; and the horses and mules are particularly esteemed. The fowls and fish resemble those of Peru.

S. What are the principal vegetables?

M. All the vegetable production of Peru are found here in the greatest plenty; and the small part of the country which is cultivated, gives a sufficient proof of the amazing fertility of the soil. It produces corn and most kinds of grain, herbs, and fruit, in the greatest abundance.

3. *Rivers and Mines.*

S. Are there any rivers of note in Chili?

M. Several; and there is scarcely a river, or rivulet, in the whole country, in which gold is not found in the sands, either in a greater or lesser degree. Here are several salt lakes, the water of which congeals in the summer, and forms a crust on the top of fine white salt, near a foot in thickness.

S. Are there any mines in that country?

M. A great variety, of gold, ſilver, quickſilver, lead, copper, and iron.

4. *Inhabitants and Commerce.*

S. What people inhabit the kingdom of Chili?

M. They may be properly divided into three claſſes, viz. The free natives; thoſe who are ſubject to Spain; and thoſe who are Spaniards born, or deſcended from them. The free natives own the dominion of the king of Spain, but pay him no tribute; whereas the ſecond claſs pay a tax to the Spaniards, and work for them as ſervants, but will not ſuffer themſelves to be treated as ſlaves. Theſe Indians are naturally brave, and were with great difficulty brought to acknowledge the power of Spain; nor would they ſubmit, till a ſafe and honourable peace had been granted them by their inſolent invaders, over whom they were very watchful, leſt they ſhould encroach by degrees on their privileges, and reduce them to the ſame ſervile ſtate in which they have plunged the Indians of other countries. They have no kings or particular form of government, each maſter of a family being its independent ſovereign. When they go to war, they are led by a ſuperior, whom they call a chief, but he receives neither ſalary nor reward.

S. In what articles does the commerce of Chili conſiſt?

M. In corn, wine, hemp, hides, tallow, and ſalted proviſions. This trade is chiefly carried on with Peru, Panama, and ſome parts of Mexico.

DIALOGUE LXX.

PARAGUAY, *or* LA PLATA.

S. WHAT is the ſituation of Paraguay?

M. It lies between 12 and 37 degrees of ſouth latitude, and 50 and 75 degrees of weſt longitude.

S. What are its dimenſions?

M. It is about 1500 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth.

S. By

S. By what countries is it bounded?

M. By Amazonia on the north, by Brazil on the eaſt, by Patagonia on the ſouth, and by Peru and Chili on the weſt.

S. How is it divided?

M. In the manner exhibited in the following table:

Diviſions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*
Eaſt diviſion contains	Paraguay,	Aſſumption.
	Parana,	St. Ann.
	Guaira,	Ciuidad Real.
	Uragua,	Los Reyes.
South diviſion contains	Tucuman.	St. Jago.
	Rio de la Plata,	Buenos Ayres.

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air ſalutary?

M. Remarkably ſo, being quite clear and ſerene.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. Very little of this country is known, even to the Spaniards themſelves, except that province called Rio de la Plata, the ſoil of which is very rich and fertile.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are found in Paraguay?

M. Very few wild beaſts, and thoſe not of a ravenous nature: but there is plenty of deer; game of all ſorts; fowl both wild and tame; and the inhabitants breed great numbers of cattle.

S. What are the vegetable productions of this country?

M. Plenty of corn and other European grain, Indian wheat, variety of fruits and roots, exceedingly rich paſturage, cotton, tobacco, and the herb paraguay, which is held in the higheſt eſteem among the Indians. There are two ſpecies of it, the one ſimply called Paraguay, and the other camini, or yerva camini, which is the ſort drank by the richeſt of the inhabitants, the other being chiefly uſed by domeſtics and ſlaves. This herb is ſuppoſed to be of ſuch infinite ſervice to the health, that not one in that

part

part of America will live without taking it infuſed in hot water. or chewing it; and the mines would be ſoon abandoned, if the ſlaves who work in them were not ſupplied by their maſters with paraguay, to which the following virtues are aſcribed, viz. It is good in all diſeaſes of the head, breaſt, and ſtomach; preſerves the miners from the noxious mineral ſteams with which they would otherwiſe be ſuffocated; is a ſovereign remedy in putrid fevers and the ſcurvy; is an antidote againſt ſeveral kinds of poiſons, and bites of venomous animals; allays hunger; and, the natives ſay, it purifies all kinds of water, how foul or corrupt ſoever, by only infuſing it therein.

3. *Rivers and Commerce.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers?

M. Paraguay, Parana, and Uraguay. Theſe three rivers uniting, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate river.

S. In what does the commerce of the natives conſiſt?

M. In hides, cotton, ſugar, gold, ſilver, and the herb paraguay, of which they export yearly to Peru, Chili, &c. to the amount of ſeveral thouſand pounds ſterling.

4. *Inhabitants, and Hiſtorical Events.*

S. What people inhabit Paraguay?

M. They bear ſo near a reſemblance to thoſe of the colonies already mentioned, as to render a repetition needleſs.

S. When was this part of America ſettled?

M. It was diſcovered in 1515 by the Spaniards, as they were ſailing up the river La Plata, and a town was founded by them, which, from its pleaſant ſituation, they named Buenos Ayres.

S. Had not the Jeſuits conſiderable ſettlements in Paraguay?

M. They had.

S. I ſhould be obliged to you for a ſhort account of them.

M. Thoſe fathers who had been ſent by the court of Spain to introduce the goſpel among the Indians, about the

the middle of the laſt century, preſented a memorial to the king, wherein they imputed the ill ſucceſs of their miſſions to the immorality and inſolence of the Spaniards ſettled in thoſe parts; aſſerting, that by their examples the Indians were influenced to commit bad actions and enraged to the higheſt pitch of hatred by their inſolence; adding, that from thoſe impediments alone, they had not been able to extend the knowledge of the goſpel to the remoteſt parts of America, or ſubdue thoſe countries to his Catholic majeſty's obedience, which, theſe once removed, might be effected without expence or force. The court of Spain, to whom theſe inſinuations were very flattering, immediately gave certain parts of the country to theſe fathers. in which they were to begin their good work, and act without controul; ſending orders, at the ſame time, to all governors of the adjacent provinces not to interfere, or even ſuffer a Spaniard to enter the limits aſſigned the Jeſuits, without permiſſion obtained from them. This point gained, they firſt prevailed on about fifty wandering families to ſettle; and their example was, in time, followed by thouſands, who not only ſubmitted to this new form of government, but likewiſe embraced the Chriſtian religion. The Jeſuits left nothing undone that could confirm their ſubjection or increaſe their numbers, and it is ſaid that 340,000 families were once ſubject to them, living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration; that the Indians were inſtructed in the military art with the moſt exact diſcipline, and could raiſe 60,000 men well armed. They lived in towns, very regularly clad, and laboured in agriculture and manufactures. Nothing could equal the obedience of the people of theſe miſſions, except their contentment under the authority exerciſed over them. Some writers have treated the character of theſe Jeſuits with great ſeverity, accuſing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to ſuch an exceſs, as to cauſe not only perſons of both ſexes, but even the magiſtrates, who were always choſen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with ſtripes, and to ſuffer perſons of the higheſt diſtinction, within their juriſdiction, to kiſs the hem of their garments as the greateſt honour. The prieſts themſelves poſſeſſed large property; all manufactures were theirs, the natural produce of the country

country was brought to them; and the treaſures annually remitted to the ſuperior of the order ſeemed to evince that zeal for religion was not the only motive of their forming theſe miſſions. The fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, or Meſtizos, or even Indians to come within their miſſions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of the territory was ceded by Spain to Portugal, in exchange for Santo Sacramento, to make the Oragua the boundary of their poſſeſſions, the Jeſuits refuſed to comply with this diviſion or to ſuffer themſelves to be transferred from one hand to another like cattle. The Indians under their authority, took up arms; but, notwithſtanding the exactneſs of their diſcipline, they were eaſily, and with conſiderable ſlaughter defeated by the European troops who were ſent to queil them. In 1767, the Jeſuits were ſent out of America by royal authority, and their late ſubjects were put upon the ſame footing with the reſt of the inhabitants of the country.

DIALOGUE LXXI.

SPANISH ISLANDS *in* AMERICA.

S. ARE there not ſeveral iſlands in America which belong to Spain?

M. Yes; and many of them very valuable.

S. What are the names of the principal iſlands?

M. Cuba, Porto Rico, Virgin Iſlands, Trinidad, Margaretta, Juan Fernandes, and Falkland iſlands.

1. *Cuba.*

S. What is the ſituation of this iſland?

M. It lies between 19 and 23 degrees of north latitude, and between 74 and 86 degrees of weſt longitude, 100 miles to the ſouth of Cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica.

S. What are its dimenſions?

M. It is about 700 miles in length, and 70 in breadth.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. Extremely

M. Extremely fertile; and ſuppoſed the beſt, for ſo large an extent of country, of any in America.

S. What are the properties of the air?

M. Very temperate, clear, and wholeſome.

S. Are there any ſprings, mountains, or mines?

M. Several of the two former, and a few of the latter.

S. What are the principal productions of this iſland?

M. Sugar canes, tobacco, ginger, long pepper, wild cinnamon, caſſia fiſtula, maſtic, and aloes.

2. *Porto Rico.*

S. What is the ſituation of this iſland?

M. It lies between Hiſpaniola and St. Chriſtophers, between 64 and 67 degrees weſt longitude, and in 18 degrees north latitude.

S. Is it extenſive?

M. It does not exceed an hundred miles in length, and forty in breadth.

S. Is the air ſalutary?

M. No; eſpecially in the rainy ſeaſon, when it is very unwholeſome.

S. Of what nature is the ſoil?

M. Extremely fertile.

S. What are its productions?

M. Corn, ginger, ſugar, fruits; ſeveral curious trees; and the inhabitants make large quantities of rum.

S. Are there any remarkable animals?

M. No; but great numbers of cattle.

3. *Virgin Iſlands.*

S. Where are theſe iſlands ſituated?

M. At the eaſt end of Porto Rico.

S. Is there any thing remarkable in them?

M. No; they are extremely ſmall and inſignificant.

4. *Trinidad.*

S. Where is Trinidad ſituated?

M. Between 59 and 62 degrees of weſt longitude, and in 10 degrees north latitude, between the iſland of Tobago

go and the Spaniſh Main, from which it is ſeparated by the Streights of Paria.

S. What are its dimenſions?

M. About ninety miles in length, and ſixty in breadth.

S. Of what nature is the air and ſoil of this iſland?

M. The former is very bad, and the latter very fertile.

S. In what does its natural productions conſiſt?

M. In ſugar, Indian corn, tobacco, variety of fruits, ginger, and ſome cotton trees.

5. *Margaretta.*

S. What is the ſituation of this iſland?

M. It lies in 11 degrees north latitude, and 64 weſt longitude, and is ſeparated from the coaſt of New Andaluſia in Terra Firma, by a ſtrait 24 miles broad.

S. What is its extent?

M. About 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth.

S. What is there remarkable on this iſland?

M. Nothing; there was once a pearl-fiſhery on its coaſt, which is now diſcontinued. It is always verdant, and abounds in paſture, maize, and fruit, but there is a ſcarcity of wood and water.

6. *Juan Fernandes.*

S. How is this iſland ſituated?

M. In 33 degrees ſouth latitude, and 83 weſt longitude.

S. What are the advantages of it?

M. Very few. It is entirely uninhabited, but its excellent ſituation renders it a convenient place for our cruizers to ſtop at in time of war, and take in freſh water, without being diſcovered by the Spaniards.

7. *Falkland Iſlands.*

S. Where are theſe iſlands ſituated?

M. They lie near the ſtreights of Magellan, the extremity of the continent of South America, between 51 and 52 degrees ſouth latitude, and 55 and 56 degrees weſt longitude.

S. What

S. What are their utmoſt extent?

M. About 50 miles in length, from north to ſouth; and 38 in breadth, from eaſt to weſt.

S. When, and by whom were they diſcovered?

M. In 1594, by Sir Richard Hawkins, who called the principal of them Hawkins's Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. As to their preſent appellation of Falkland Iſles, it is not certain from whom they received it, tho' it is ſuppoſed that it was given them by captain Strong, who was there in 1689, and being adopted by the great Dr. Halley, they have been denominated ſo in our maps ever ſince.

S. Is the air ſalutary, and the ſoil fertile?

M. Very little is known of either; for the various accounts given by commodore Byron, and captain M'Bride, have rather ſerved to perplex than give us any information on this head. According to the former, the air is healthy, and the ſoil far from being barren; while the latter aſſerts, that perpetual ſtorms reign there, and that the ground is one continued bog.

S. Are there any animal or vegetable productions on theſe iſlands?

M. Geeſe, ſnipes, penguins, and ſea lions are natives of the place; and the hogs, ſheep, and goats carried there from England, thrive and increaſe amazingly. Wild celery, ſorrel, and graſs are the only plants which grow naturally in theſe iſlands: and whether any other would thrive is uncertain; though, according to captain M'Bride, the fir tree, which flouriſhes even in the frozen regions of the north, periſhed, on being planted in Falkland iſlands.

S. To whom do they belong?

M. To Spain.

S. Had not the Engliſh once a ſettlement on theſe iſlands?

M. An attempt to form a ſettlement here, was made by the Engliſh in the reign of Charles II. which proving abortive, the deſign was laid aſide till the year 1764. when the neceſſity of gaining a ſettlement in the ſouth ſeas was again revived, and the author of Anſon's voyage having pointed out Falkland iſlands as convenient for that purpoſe, commodore Byron was ſent to take poſſeſſion of them. This expedition was attended with the expected ſucceſs; an excellent harbour was diſcovered, and a ſettlement made. In 1770, the

Engliſh

Engliſh were driven from this infant colony by a fleet which the Spaniſh governor of Buenos Ayres fitted out for that purpoſe: but the court of Spain finding our government reſolved to obtain ſatisfaction for this inſult, thought proper to reinſtate the Engliſh in their ſettlement. They, however, abandoned the iſlands in 1774, and the Spaniards now ſend criminals to them from their ſettlements in America.

S. Are theſe all the iſlands worthy obſervation?

M. Yes; for the Gallipago iſles, and thoſe in the Bay of Panama, called the King's, or Pearl Iſlands, have nothing remarkable. The former are ſituated four hundred miles weſt of Peru, and the latter in the Bay of Panama.

DIALOGUE LXXII.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

CONTAINING BRASIL.

S. WHAT is the ſituation and extent of Braſil?

M. It is ſituated between the equator and 35 degrees ſouth latitude, and between 35 and 60 weſt longitude; being about 2500 miles in length, and 700 in breadth.

S. By what is it bounded?

M. By the mouth of the river of the Amazons and the Atlantic ocean on the north, by the ſame ocean on the eaſt, by the mouth of the river Plata on the ſouth, and by a chain of mountains which divide it from Paraguay and Amazonia on the weſt.

S. How is it divided?

M. In the following manner:

Diviſions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*
The north diviſion contains,	Para,	Para or Belim.
	Marignan,	St Lewis.
	Siara,	Siara.
	Petagues,	St. Lue.

Diviſions.

Diviſions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*
The north diviſion contains,	Rio Grande,	Tignares.
	Payraba,	Payraba.
	Tamara,	Tamara.
	Pernambuco,	Olinda.
The middle diviſion contains,	Seregippe,	Seregippe.
	Bahia, or the Bay of All Saints,	St. Salvadore.
	Ilheos,	Paya.
	Porto Seguro,	Porto Seguro.
	Spirito Santo,	Spirito Santo.
Southern diviſion contains,	Rio Janeiro,	St. Sebaſtian.
	St. Vincent,	St. Vincent.
	Del Rey,	St. Salvador.
Small iſlands on the coaſt of Braſil.	Fernando,	
	St. Barbara,	
	St. Catharines.	

1. *Air and Soil.*

S. Is the air of that country ſalutary?

M. To the north, which lies almoſt under the equator, it is hot, and ſubject to great rains and variable winds, which render it exceedingly unwholeſome; but to the ſouthward the climate is very ſerene and healthy.

S. What is the nature of the ſoil?

M. In general extremely fruitful.

2. *Animal and Vegetable Productions.*

S. What animals are there in this part of America?

M. The ſame with thoſe of Mexico and Peru.

S. What are the vegetable productions of Braſil?

M. Sugar, indigo, tobacco, ipecacuanha, balſam of copaibo, and other valuable drugs. Among the trees common to this country, is the Braſil, from whence it was named. Agriculture is not much attended to by the inhabitants,, who are chiefly employed in the mines, and in a manner depend upon Europe for their daily ſupport.

3. *Rivers and Mines.*

S. What are the names of the principal rivers?

M. The Siara, Rio Grande, Paraiba, Tamara, Rio Real, Rio St. Antonio, Rio St. Janeiro, Ilheos, Dolce, Paraba, and Plata.

S. Are there any mines?

M. Yes; very valuable ones of gold and diamonds.

4. *Inhabitants and Commerce.*

S. What are the people that inhabit this country?

M. They are of two kinds, Indians and Portugueſe. The Indians, or natives, are a rude, uncivilized nation; ſtrong, lively, and healthy, generally living to a great age. They are of a copper colour, and have long coarſe black hair. As to the Portugueſe, who are ſettled here, they are ſaid to be an indolent, proud, cruel, diſſembling, artful, penurious race, whoſe only delight conſiſts in effeminate luxuries.

S. What are the principal commodities of their commerce?

M. Gold, diamonds, ſugar, tobacco, hides, Braſilwood, and other valuable drugs, both for medicine and manufactures.

5. *Hiſtorical Events and Government.*

S. By what nation was this part of America ſettled?

M. By the Portugueſe, who diſcovered it in the year 1500, but did not plant a colony there till 94 years after. They continued in peaceable poſſeſſion of Braſil till 1623, when the Dutch invaded it with ſucceſs; and though they were afterwards driven out, they proved ſo troubleſome by their pretenſions of right, that the Portugueſe were glad to pay them eight tons of gold to relinquiſh their intereſt in that country. From that period till the year 1762, Braſil continued at peace; but the war having then broke out between Portugal and Spain, the Spaniſh governor of Buenos-Ayres marched againſt Braſil, and made himſelf

himſelf maſter of the frontier town of St. Sacramento, which was, however, reſtored at the peace.

DIALOGUE LXXIII.

FRENCH AMERICA.

S. HAVE the French large poſſeſſions in America?

M. Before the war of 1756, their territories were very large. They were maſters of Canada, beſides ſeveral fertile iſlands in the Weſt-Indies; but they ceded all Canada to the Engliſh by the peace of 1763; ſo that their poſſeſſions at preſent are limited to a ſmall part of Guiana, and ſome ſugar iſlands in the Weſt-Indies.

S. By what name is their ſettlement in Guiana known in Europe?

M. By that of Cayenne, or equinoctial France.

S. What are the ſituation, dimenſions, and boundaries of Cayenne?

M. It lies between the equator and 5 degrees of north latitude, and between 50 and 55 degrees of weſt longitude. It extends near two hundred and forty miles along the coaſt of Guiana, and near three hundred miles into the inland parts of that province. It is bounded on the north by Surinam; on the ſouth by Amazonia; on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean; and on the weſt by the territories of the natives.

S. Is this ſettlement of any conſequence to France?

M. It might be of much greater value than it is at preſent, if the country was properly cultivated. They, however, make a conſiderable quantity of ſugar and rum; and the country produces a prodigious variety of uſeful trees, plants, gums, &c. but theſe are not regarded with the attention they deſerve.

DIALOGUE LXXIV.

FRENCH ISLANDS *in* AMERICA.

S. WHAT iſlands are there belonging to the French in America?

M. The greateſt part of the iſland of Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo, was long poſſeſſed by that nation, and the whole was ceded to them by the Spaniards in 1795; beſides which, they have Guadalupe, St. Bartholomew, Deſeada, and Marigalante.

1. *Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo.*

S. What is the ſituation of Hiſpaniola?

M. It lies between 17 and 21 degrees of north latitude, and 67 and 74 of weſt longitude, in the centre between Cuba and Porto Rico.

S. What are its dimenſions?

M. It is about 450 miles long, and 150 broad.

S. Did not this iſland belong to the Spaniards?

M. The eaſtern part of it did, and the weſt to France; but by the treaty of peace between France and Spain, the Spaniſh part was ceded to France.

S. Is the air and ſoil good?

M. Both exceedingly ſo: the former is healthy, and the latter fertile.

S. What are the productions of Hiſpaniola?

M. Sugar, cotton, maize, caſſava root, &c. The cattle common in Europe are found wild there, and the inhabitants hunt them for the ſake of their hides and tallow.

2. *Guadalupe.*

S. What is the ſituation of Guadalupe?

M. It lies in 16 degrees north latitude, and 62 weſt longitude, about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and nearly the ſame diſtance ſouth of Antigua.

S. What is its extent?

M. About 45 miles in length, and 38 in breadth.

S. Does

S. Does this iſland produce any thing particular?

M. No. It is divided by a ſmall arm of the ſea, through which no ſhips can venture; the inhabitants are obliged to paſs from one part of the iſland to the other in a ferry-boat. The productions are the ſame as thoſe of all the Weſt-India iſlands.

3. *St. Bartholomew, Deſeada, and Marigalante.*

S. Why do you join thoſe three iſlands together?

M. Becauſe they are exceedingly ſmall, and all lie in the neighbourhood of St. Chriſtopher's and Antigua.

S. Of what uſe are they to the French?

M. None in time of peace; but in a war with England they afford excellent ſhelter for their privateers, who, from theſe harbours, greatly annoy our Weſt-India trade. The iſland of St. Bartholomew, however, was ceded by France to Sweden in 1785.

DIALOGUE LXXV.

DUTCH AMERICA.

Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, on the Continent of SOUTH-AMERICA.

S. WHAT are the ſituation and boundaries of this country?

M. It lies between five and ſeven degrees of north latitude. It is bounded by the Atlantic ocean and the river Oroonoko on the north and eaſt, by the country of the Amazons on the ſouth, and by the provinces of Grenada and New Andaluſia in Terra Firma, on the weſt.

S. What are the dimenſions of Surinam?

M. Above 1200 miles in length, and near 600 in breadth.

S. Is the air of Surinam ſalutary?

M. Juſt the contrary; great part of the coaſt being covered with water, whence the air is moiſt and unwholeſome.

S. Is the ſoil fertile?

M. In many places it is luxuriantly ſo.

S. What are the chief products of this country?

M. Tobacco, cotton, ſugar, coffee, ſkins, flax, and ſome valuable drugs for dying, and medicine.

S. How came the Dutch poſſeſſed of Surinam?

M. The Engliſh, to whom it formerly belonged, gave it them, together with ſome other iſlands on the Spaniſh Main, in exchange for New-York. In May 1799, it was taken by the Engliſh.

DIALOGUE LXXVI.

DUTCH ISLANDS *in* AMERICA.

S. WHAT are the names of the Dutch iſlands in America?

M. St. Euſtatia, Curaçao, Bonaire, Aruba, Saba, and St. Martins.

S. Which are the moſt conſiderable of theſe iſlands?

M. St. Euſtatia and Curaçao.

S. What are the ſituation and dimenſions of St. Euſtatia?

M. It lies in 17 degrees 29 minutes of north latitude, and 62 degrees 56 minutes weſt longitude. The whole iſland is nothing more than a ſingle mountain, about 29 miles in compaſs, riſing out of the ſea in the form of a pyramid.

S. What is the ſituation of Curaçao?

M. It lies in 12 degrees north latitude, and in 68 degrees 20 minutes of weſt longitude, about 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma.

S. Is Curaçao a large iſland?

M. No; it is not above 30 miles in length, and 10 in breadth.

S. What are the principal productions of theſe iſlands?

M. Tobacco and ſugar: and at Curaçao there are ſome exceeding good ſalt works. Nor are theſe the only advantages it boaſts over St. Euſtatia; for here the Dutch have warehouſes filled with every ſpecies of goods from all parts of the world, and hither the Spaniards repair to traffic

traffic both in time of peace and war; and, indeed. in caſe of the latter, Curaçao is the common market of the Weſt-Indies, to which ſhips of all nations reſort to purchaſe whatever they want. This general trade renders the iſland of great importance.

S. Is there nothing remarkable in the other four iſlands?

M. The two laſt are ſo very inconſiderable, that they do not deſerve to be mentioned, and the two former are only rendered worthy of notice by the vaſt numbers of cattle which the Dutch breed on them, to ſupply the markets of Curaçao.

DIALOGUE LXXVII.

DANISH ISLANDS *in* AMERICA.

S. HOW many iſlands belong to the Danes in America?

M. Only two; St. Thomas, and St. Croix, or Santa Cruz.

S. What is the ſituation of the iſland of St. Thomas?

M. It lies in 18 degrees north latitude, and 64 degrees weſt longitude.

S. Is it conſiderable for its magnitude?

M. No; it is not above fifteen miles in circumference, but has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

S. What is the ſituation of St. Croix?

M. It lies about five leagues to the eaſtward of St. Thomas, and is therefore in the ſame latitude.

S. Is St. Croix larger than the iſland of St. Thomas?

M. It is much larger; being about 35 miles in length, and 10 in breadth.

S. Are theſe iſlands of any great value?

M. They yield all the commodities common to the Weſt-India iſlands. The iſland of St. Thomas alone is ſaid to produce upwards of three thouſand hogſheads of ſugar, each weighing a thouſand weight, annually. St. Croix was a perfect deſert a few years ſince; but by the encouragement given to ſettlers on the iſland, it already

wears a different aſpect, and bids fair to be ſoon a very valuable iſland.

DIALOGUE LXXVIII.

SOUTH SEA ISLANDS, *and* NEW DISCOVERIES.

S. HAVE there not been, of late years, a number of new iſlands diſcovered in the South Sea, and others which were but imperfectly known, more fully explored by navigators who have ſailed on voyages of diſcovery?

M. There have. In Auguſt 1766, captains Carteret and Wallis were ſent out, with the Swallow and Dolphin, at the expence of the Britiſh government, to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. On the 19th of June, 1767, Captain Wallis diſcovered Otaheite, which he named King George's Iſland; he likewiſe diſcovered ſeveral other iſlands. Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, which was ſeparated from the Dolphin, alſo diſcovered a number of ſmall iſlands.

At the cloſe of the year 1767 it was reſolved by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to ſend perſons into ſome part of the South Sea, to obſerve a tranſit of the planet Venus over the ſun's diſk, which according to aſtronomical calculation would happen in the year 1769; and the iſlands, called Marqueſas de Mendoza, or thoſe of Rotterdam or Amſterdam, were the propereſt places then known for making ſuch obſervations. In conſequence of theſe reſolutions, it was recommended to his majeſty, in a memorial from the ſociety, dated February, 1768; that he would be pleaſed to order ſuch an obſervation to be made; upon which his majeſty ſignified to the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, his pleaſure that a ſhip ſhould be provided to carry ſuch obſervers as the ſociety ſhould think fit to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark of three hundred and ſeventy tons was prepared for that purpoſe. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by Captain James Cook, who was ſoon after by the Royal Society appointed, with Mr.

Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had long been aſſiſtant to Dr. Bradley, at the royal obſervatory at Greenwich, to obſerve the tranſit. But while this veſſel was getting ready for her expedition, Captain Wallis returned and recommended the iſland of Otaheite as a proper place for the obſervations intended to be made, which was accordingly fixed on by the ſociety.

Captain Cook ſet ſail from Plymouth, on the 26th of Auguſt, 1768, and was accompanied in his voyage by Joſeph Banks, eſq (now Sir Joſeph Banks), and Dr. Solander. They made no diſcovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon iſland, Two Groups, Bird iſland, and Chain iſland, and arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April 1769. During their ſtay at that iſland, they had the opportunity of making very accurate inquiries relative to the produce and inhabitants, and on the 4th of June obſerved the tranſit, which was the original object of the voyage. After his departure from Otaheite, Captain Cook diſcovered and viſited the Society Iſlands, and Oheteroa, and afterwards made an accurate ſurvey of the coaſts of New Zealand, New Holland and New Guinea, and in September 1770, arrived at the iſland of Savu, whence he proceeded to Batavia, and thence, round the Cape of Good Hope, to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June 1771.

Soon after Captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was reſolved to equip two ſhips in order to make farther diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Accordingly the Reſolution and Adventure were appointed for that purpoſe: the firſt was commanded by Captain Cook, and the latter by Captain Furneaux. They ſailed from Plymouth Sound on the 13th of July 1772, and in February 1773 arrived at New Zealand, having ſought in vain for a ſouthern continent. In the October following the Reſolution and Adventure were ſeparated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Reſolution, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern polar regions, but was ſtopped in his progreſs by the ice in the latitude of 71°. 10′ ſouth; longitude 106°. 51′ weſt. He afterwards diſcovered New Caledonia, whence he proceeded to New Zealand, to refreſh his crew, and put his ſhip into a condition to encounter the

danger attending the navigation in the high ſouthern latitudes. After leaving New Zealand he directed his courſe to the ſouth and eaſt till he arrived in the latitude of 55° 0′ ſouth and longitude 138° 6° weſt, without meeting with any continent, which he then gave up all hope of diſcovering. He reſolved therefore to ſteer directly for the weſt entrance of the ſtraits of Magellan with a view of coaſting and ſurveying the outermoſt or ſouth ſide of Terra del Fuego. In January, 1775, he diſcovered a large and dreary iſland, to which he gave the name of South Georgia. He afterwards diſcovered various capes and elevated ſnow-clad coaſts to the moſt ſouthern part of which he gave the name of the Southern Thule, as being the neareſt land to that pole, which has yet been diſcovered. In February, he diſcovered Sandwich Land, and ſeveral iſlands covered with ſnow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July.—Captain Furneaux had returned to England in the Adventure a year before, having proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope, without making any remarkable diſcovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by ſome of the ſavages of New Zealand; ſo that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibals really exiſt; and, indeed, in the courſe of theſe voyages of diſcovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to Captain Cook, in the courſe of his voyage in the Reſolution, he had made the circuit of the ſouthern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traverſed it in ſuch a manner, as to leave not the leaſt room to imagine the exiſtence of any ſouthern continent, unleſs near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deſerves alſo to be remembered, in honour of that able commander Captain Cook, that with a company of a hundred and eighteen men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days throughout all the climates, from 52 degrees north to 71 ſouth, with the loſs of only one man by ſickneſs: and this appears, in a conſiderable degree, to have ariſen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preſerving the health of his men.

Another voyage was performed by Captain Cook, and Captain

Captain Clerke, in the Reſolution and Diſcovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in ſearch of a north-weſt paſſage between the continents of Aſia and America. In this voyage Captain Cook diſcovered the Sandwich iſlands; whence he proceeded to explore the north-weſt coaſt of America, from 42 to 70 degrees north, and returned again to the Sandwich iſlands, where it unfortunately happened that this celebrated and able navigator was killed in an affray with the natives, on the iſland of Owhyhee, on the 14th of February, 1779. His death was univerſally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but alſo in other parts of Europe, by thoſe to whom his merits and public ſervices were known. After the death of Captain Cook, the command devolved on Captain Clerke, who died at ſea, on his return to the ſouthward, on the 22d of Auguſt 1779. The two ſhips returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and arrived at the Nore on the 5th of October, 1780. This voyage afforded ſufficient evidence that no practicable paſſage exiſts between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans towards the north, and aſcertained the weſtern boundaries of the great continent of America.

The north-weſt coaſt of America has likewiſe been carefully examined and accurately ſurveyed for a great extent, by captain Vancouver, whoſe voyage, performed between the years 1790 and 1795, has been lately publiſhed; as alſo by the unfortunate French navigator, La Perouſe, who, though it is probable that he periſhed at ſea, with his ſhips and crews, tranſmitted home, as he found opportunity, the intereſting and inſtructive account of his progreſs, which has been preſented to the public under the title of a Voyage round the World.

Otaheite.

S. What is the ſituation of the iſland of Otaheite, and what are its dimenſions?

M. It is ſituated between 17°. 28 and 17°. 53′ of ſouth latitude, and 149°. 11′ and 149° 38′ of weſt longitude. It conſiſts of two peninſulas of a ſomewhat circular form, joined by an iſthmus, and is about thirty leagues in circumference.

S. What are the qualities of the climate and ſoil, and character and manners of the inhabitants?

M. The climate is extremely mild and ſalubrious: the ſoil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit trees of various kinds, forming the moſt delightful groves.

Some parts of the iſland of Otaheite are very populous; and Captain Cook was of opinion that the number of inhabitants on the whole iſland amounted to above 200,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion. The men are tall, ſtrong, well limbed, and finely ſhaped; the women are of an inferior ſize, but handſome, and very amorous. They are extremely cleanly, for both men and women conſtantly waſh their whole bodies in running water three times a day. They are brave, open, and candid, without either ſuſpicion or treachery, cruelty or revenge. They will, however, all ſteal any thing that falls in their way. They have the practice of diſcolouring the ſkin by pricking it with a ſmall inſtrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattooing. This operation is performed upon the youth of both ſexes when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on ſeveral parts of the body and in various figures. Their weapons are ſlings, which they uſe with great dexterity, and clubs of about ſix or ſeven feet long, made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are conſtructed for war.

The Society Iſlands.

S. What is the ſituation of the Society iſlands, and how many are they in number?

M. The Society iſlands are ſituated between 150°. 57′, and 152 degrees of weſt longitude, and 16°. 10′, and 16°. 55′ of ſouth latitude. They are ſix in number, and are named Huahine, Ulietea, Otaha, Bolabola, Maurua, and Tabooyamanoo, or Saunder's iſland.

S. What have you to obſerve on the ſoil, productions, and character of the inhabitants?

M. The ſoil, productions, natives, their language, religion,

gion, cuſtoms and manners are nearly the ſame as at Otaheite. The people of Huahine are in general ſtouter and fairer than thoſe of Otaheite, and this iſland is remarkable for its populouſneſs and fertility. The inhabitants of Ulietea, on the contrary, are of a ſmaller ſize, a darker complexion, and leſs friendly in their manners.

Oheteroa.

S. Where is the iſland of Oheteroa ſituated, and what has it worthy of notice?

M. This iſland is ſituated in the latitude of 22°. 27′ ſouth, and in 150°. 47′ weſt longitude. It is 13 miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither ſo populous nor ſo fertile as ſome of the other iſlands in theſe ſeas. The inhabitants are ſtout and well made, but they are rather browner than thoſe of Otaheite, and the Society iſlands. Their principal weapons are long lances made of etoa wood, which is very hard, and ſome of them are nearly twenty feet long.

The Friendly Iſlands.

S. By whom were the Friendly iſlands firſt diſcovered; and what is their ſituation and produce?

M. They were firſt touched at by Janſen Taſman, an eminent Dutch navigator, in 1643, who gave the names of New Amſterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburg, to three of the principal. Captain Cook explored the whole cluſter, which he found to conſiſt of more than twenty iſlands, the principal of which are Tongataboo, or Amſterdam; Eaoowe, or Middleburg; Annamooka, or Rotterdam; Hapace, and Letooga. The firſt, which is the largeſt, lies in 21°. 9′ ſouth latitude, and 174°. 45′ weſt longitude. The general appearance of theſe iſlands conveys an idea of the moſt exuberant fertility; and on cloſer examination they are found to be almoſt wholly laid out in plantations, in which are ſome of the richeſt productions of nature, ſuch as bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees, plantains, yams, and ſugar canes. Theſe iſlands are all inhabited by a race of people who cultivate the earth with great induſtry; and nature, aſſiſted by a little art, appears no where more

luxuriantly prolific. Agriculture, boat-building, and fiſhing are the occupations of the men, while the women are employed in the manufacture of cloth.

The Marqueſas Iſlands.

S. What is the ſituation and produce of the Marqueſas, and by whom were they diſcovered?

M. The Marqueſas, or Marquis of Mendoza's iſlands, were firſt diſcovered by Mendana, a Spaniard, in the year 1595, and viſited by Captain Cook, in 1774. They are ſituated in 10 degrees of ſouth latitude, and 139 of weſt longitude. They are five in number, and named St. Chriſtina, Magdallena, Dominica, St. Pedro, and Hood. The vegetable productions are nearly the ſame as in the Society iſles, and the natives greatly reſemble the inhabitants of thoſe iſlands in their perſons and manners.

Eaſter Iſland.

S. What is the ſituation and produce of Eaſter iſland?

M. It is ſituated in latitude 27°. 5′ ſouth, and longitude 109°. 46′ weſt; and is about twelve leagues in circuit. It was ſeen by Davis in 1686, afterwards viſited by Roggewein in 1722, and again by Captain Cook, in 1774. The country is naturally barren, having a hilly and ſtony ſurface, and affords neither ſafe anchorage, freſh water, nor wood for fuel. Rats are the only quadrupeds, and there are but few birds.

The Sandwich Iſlands.

S. Where are the Sandwich iſlands, and what are the principal particulars worthy notice reſpecting them?

M. The Sandwich iſlands extend from 18°. 54′ to 22°. 15′ of north latitude, and from 150°. 54′ to 160°. 24′ of weſt longitude. They are eleven in number, and named by the natives Owhyhee, Mowee, Ranai, Morotoi, Tahoorowa, Woahoo, Atooi, Nechecheow, Oneehoua, Morotinnee, and Takoora; all of which are inhabited except the two laſt. The climate differs little from that of the Weſt Indies in the ſame latitude; upon the whole, perhaps,

perhaps, it is rather more temperate: there is alſo more rain. The vegetable productions are nearly the ſame with thoſe of the other iſlands in the Pacific Ocean. The inhabitants in their perſons, language, and manners approach nearer to the New Zealanders, than to their leſs diſtant neighbours either of the Society or Friendly iſlands. They are in general above the middle ſize, and well made; they walk gracefully, run nimbly, and are capable of bearing great fatigue. Many of both ſexes have fine open countenances, and the women in particular have good eyes and teeth, with an engaging ſweetneſs and affability of look. They live in the utmoſt harmony and friendſhip with each other; and in hoſpitality to ſtrangers are not exceeded even by the inhabitants of the Friendly iſlands.

The Pelew Iſlands.

S. Where are the Pelew iſlands ſituated, and what is their produce, and the character of their inhabitants?

M. The Pelew iſlands or Palaos, are ſituated between the 5th and 9th degrees of north latitude, and between the 130th and 136th degrees of eaſt longitude. They are about eighteen in number, and lie in a north-eaſt, and ſouth-weſt direction. The names of ſome of the principal are Oroolong, Emungs, Emillegue, Artingal, Corooraa, and Pelelew. They are long, but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood.

According to the account given of theſe iſlands by Captain Wilſon, of the Antelope packet, (belonging to the Eaſt India company) who was wrecked on one of them in Auguſt 1783, before which time they appear to have had no communication with Europeans: the climate is temperate and agreeable: the land produces ſugar-cane, yams, cocoa nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges and lemons; and the ſurrounding ſeas abound with the fineſt and greateſt variety of fiſh.

The natives are a ſtout well-made people, above the middle ſtature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is underſtood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two ſmall aprons, one before, and one behind,

made of the huſks of the cocoa nut, dyed with different ſhades of yellow.

The idea which the account publiſhed by Captain Wilſon gives us of theſe iſlanders is that of a people who though naturally ignorant of the arts and ſciences, and living in the ſimpleſt ſtate of nature, yet poſſeſs all that genuine politeneſs, that delicacy and chaſtity of intercourſe between the ſexes, that reſpect for perſonal property, that ſubordination to government, and thoſe habits of induſtry, which are ſo rarely united in the more civiliſed ſociety of European nations.

The New Hebrides, and New Caledonia.

S. What is the ſituation and extent of the New Hebrides, and New Caledonia?

M. The New Hebrides lie between 14°. 29′, and 20°. 4′ of ſouth latitude, and between 166°. 41′ and 170°. 21′ of eaſt longitude, extending 125 leagues. They were firſt diſcovered by Quiros in 1606, and by him named Tierra Auſtralia del Eſpiritu Santo, being ſuppoſed part of a great ſouthern continent. The French navigator Bougainville, in 1768. diſcovered that they were iſlands, and called them the Great Cyclades. Captain Cook, in 1774, aſcertained the extent and ſituation of the whole group, and gave them the name they now bear. The principal of theſe iſlands are Tierra del Eſpiritu Santo, Malicollo, Erromanga, and Tanna, beſide ſeveral of leſs note, ſome of which are from 18 to 25 leagues in circuit. In general they are high and mountainous, abounding in wood, water, and the uſual productions of the tropical iſlands. The inhabitants are chiefly of a ſlender make, and dark colour, with frizzled hair: in their diſpoſitions, they are, in general, affable and hoſpitable.

Not far diſtant from the New Hebrides, and ſouth weſtward of them lies New Caledonia, a very large iſland, firſt diſcovered by Captain Cook, in 1774. It extends from 19 to 22 degrees of ſouth latitude, and from 163 to 167 degrees of eaſt longitude, and is about 87 leagues long; but its breadth does not any where exceed ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of ſtout well-proportioned Indians, of a ſwarthy or dark cheſnut brown. A few leagues diſtant, are

are two ſmall iſlands called the Iſland of Pines, and Botany Iſland.

New Holland.

S. What is the ſituation of New Holland, and when was it diſcovered?

M. New Holland is the largeſt iſland in the world. It extends from 10°. 30′ to 43° 42′ ſouth latitude, and from 110°. 30′ to 153°. 30′ eaſt longitude, ſo that its ſquare ſurface is equal or nearly equal to that of the whole habitable part of Europe. It appears to have been firſt diſcovered by the Dutch, in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, and different parts of it received various names from different navigators, as *Terra Auſtralis Incognita*, *De Witt's Land*, *Van Diemen's Land*, *Carpentaria*, &c. In the year 1770, Captain Cook viſited and explored the eaſt coaſt, for the diſtance of 2,000 miles, giving it the name of New South Wales; and in 1773, Captain Furneaux by connecting the different parts before known with the diſcoveries of Captain Cook, completed the circuit, and fully aſcertained it to be an iſland.

S. What is the nature of the climate, ſoil, and produce, and what the character of the natives?

M. The climate and ſoil in ſo extenſive a country, are very different, as it may well be ſuppoſed, in different parts. A great extent of the ſea coaſt appears to be ſandy and barren. The climate of Sydney Cove, however, is conſidered on the whole, as equal to the fineſt in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are ſeldom any fogs. The ſoil though in general light, and rather ſandy in this part, is full as good as uſually is found near the ſea ſide. All the plants and fruit trees brought from Braſil and the Cape thrive exceedingly, and various kinds of European vegetables, are produced in plenty. The inhabitants of New South Wales are repreſented as, perhaps, the moſt miſerable and ſavage race of men exiſting. They go entirely naked; and though pleaſed at firſt with ſome ornaments that were given to them, they ſoon threw them away as uſeleſs. In perſon they are active, vigorous, and ſtout, though generally lean. The women have ſoft and pleaſing voices, and ſeem not to be deſtitute of modeſty.

The

The men diſplay great bravery on the appearance of any danger and are very expert at throwing their javelins.

S. Is there not an Engliſh colony of convicts at Sydney Cove, on this iſland?

M. There is. Captain Cook had recommended Botany Bay for that purpoſe; and Captain Philip, being appointed governor of the intended ſettlement, as well as commodore on the voyage, ſailed from Portſmouth in May 1787, with a detachment of marines, and 778 convicts, of whom 220 were women. He arrived at Botany Bay in January, 1788; but finding this bay very ineligible for a colony, he fixed upon Port Jackſon, about fifteen miles to the northward, and here a ſettlement was begun, to which he gave the name of Sydney Cove and which having received frequent ſupplies of new recruits and all kinds of neceſſaries from England, may be conſidered as in a flouriſhing ſtate.

New Zealand.

S. What are the principal particulars deſerving notice, relative to New Zealand?

M. New Zealand was firſt diſcovered, in 1642, by Taſman, the Dutch navigator, who gave it the name of *Staten Land*; though it has been generally diſtinguiſhed in our maps by the name of New Zealand. It was ſuppoſed to be part of a ſouthern continent; but captain Cook, who ſailed round it, found it to conſiſt of two large iſlands ſeparated by a ſtrait four or five leagues broad, to which he gave his own name. They are ſituated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees ſouth, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees eaſt. One of theſe iſlands is for the moſt part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. The inhabitants of New Zealand are ſtout and robuſt, and equal in ſtature to the largeſt Europeans. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle axes. It has been proved, as has been before mentioned, that they are cannibals; that is, they occaſionally eat their priſoners taken in war.

New Guinea, New Britain, New Ireland.

S. What are the ſituation and extent of theſe iſlands?

M. New Guinea, till the late diſcoveries, was thought to be the north coaſt of an extenſive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but Captain Cook diſcovered a ſtrait between them, running north-eaſt, through which he ſailed, and found this country to be a long narrow iſland, extending north-eaſt from the 2d to the 12th degree of ſouth latitude, and from the 131ſt to the 150th degree of eaſt longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above 50 miles broad. The country conſiſts of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interſperſed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, bread-fruit, and moſt of the trees, ſhrubs and plants of the other South-ſea iſlands. The inhabitants nearly reſemble the New Hollanders on the other ſide of the ſtrait.

To the north of New Guinea is New Britain, ſeparated from it by a ſtrait, and ſituated in latitude 4° ſouth, and longitude 152 eaſt. It has many high hills and abounds in large and ſtately trees. To the eaſtward of New Britain, and in both ſtraits by which it is ſeparated from New Guinea, and New Ireland, are many iſlands, moſt of which are ſaid to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

Captain Carteret, in 1767, found New Britain to be of much leſs extent than it was till then imagined to be; by ſailing through a ſtrait to the north, which ſeparates it from a long iſland to which he gave the name of New Ireland; and which extends in length from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, about 270 miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants.

APPEN-

APPENDIX.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

CONTAINING

The NAMES and SITUATIONS of the CHIEF CITIES, TOWNS, &c. in the KNOWN WORLD, collected from the moſt authentic CHARTS, MAPS, and OBSERVATIONS.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	Lat. D.	Lat. M.	Long. D.	Long. M.
ABBEVILLE	Picardy	France	Europ.	50	7N	2	0E
Aberdeen	Aberdeenſh.	Scotland	Ditto	57	22	1	40W
Abo	Finland	Sweden	Ditto	60	50	21	28E
Acapulco	Mexico	North	Amer.	17	20	101	40W
Adrianople	Romania	Turkey	Europ.	42	0	26	30E
Agen	Guienne	France	Ditto	44	12	30	0
Aggerhuys	Aggerhuys	Norway	Ditto	59	30	11	100
Agra	Agra	Eaſt-India	Aſia	26	43	76	30
Air	Airſhire	Scotland	Europ.	55	30	4	35W
Aix-la-Chapelle	Weſtphalia	Germany	Ditto	50	48	7	0E
Appleby	Weſtmorel.	England	Ditto	57	0		
Aleppo	Syria	Turkey	Aſia	35	42	37	24
Alexandria	Lower Egypt	Ditto	Africa	31	10	30	19
Albany	New York	North	Amer.	42	48	73	30W
Algiers	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36	50	3	16E
Amboyna	Amboynaiſle	Eaſt-India	Aſia	4	25S	127	25
Amiens	Picardy	France	Europ.	49	30	2	30
Amſterdam	Holland	Netherlands	Ditto	52	23	5	4
Angers	Orleans	France	Ditto	47	28	30	0W
Annapolis	Maryland	North	Amer.	39	0	76	50
Antioch	Syria	Turkey	Aſia	36	30	32	46E
Antwerp	Brabant	Netherlands	Europ.	51	13	4	29
Archangel	Dwina	Ruſſia	Ditto	64	30	40	30
Aſtrachan	Aſtrachan	Ditto	Aſia	47	0	52	0
Athens	Achaia	Turkey	Europ.	37	58	24	5
Avignon	Provence	France	Ditto	43	15	4	40
Ava	Ava	Eaſt-India	Aſia	20	20	95	30
Augſburg	Suabia	Germany	Europ.	47	55	10	45
Abingdon	Berks	England	Ditto				

A New Geographical Table.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Agria	Upper	Hungary	Europ.	48 oN	20 oE
Baldivia	Chili	South	Amer.	39 35S	48 81
Balbec	Syria	Turkey	Aſia	33 40N	37 o
Barcelona	Catalonia	Spain	Europ.	42 20	9 40
Baſle	Baſle	Switzerland	Ditto	47 34	8 4
Baſtia	Corſica iſle	Italy	Ditto	42 20	9 40
Bath	Somerſetſh.	England	Ditto	51 27	21 32W
Bagdat	Syria Arab.	Turkey	Aſia	33 40	45 o
Baſſora	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	30 45	48 oE
Batavia	Java iſle	Eaſt-India	Ditto	6 oS	107 o
Bayonne	Gaſcony	France	Europ.	43 30N	1 30W
Belfaſt	Ulſter	Ireland	Ditto	54 39	6 30W
Bender	Beſſarabia	Turkey	Ditto	46 40	29 oE
Bergen	Bergen	Norway	Ditto	60 10	5 40
Berlin	Brandenburg	Germany	Ditto	52 32	13 32
Bern	Bern	Switzerland	Ditto	47 o	7 20
Berwick	Berwick	Scotland	Ditto	35 48	1 43W
Belgrade	Servia	Turkey	Ditto	45 60	21 20E
Bocharia	Uſbec	Tartary	Aſia	39 15	67 o
Bilboa	Biſcay	Spain	Europ.	43 26	3 18W
Birmingham	Warwickſh.	England	Ditto	52 30	1 5
Bourdeaux	Guienne	France	Ditto	44 50	o 38
Borroughſtoneſs	Linlithgowſ.	Scotland	Ditto	55 58	3 44
Boſton	Lincolnſhire	England	Ditto	53 10	o 25E
Boſton	Maſſachuſets	New England	Amer.	42 20	70 40W
Breda	Brabant	Netherlands	Europ.	51 40	4 40E
Breſt	Bretany	France	Ditto	48 23	4 25W
Bremen	Low. Saxony	Germany	Ditto	53 25	8 20E
Breſlau	Sileſia	Bohemia	Ditto	51 15	16 50
Briſtol	Somerſetſh.	England	Ditto	51 33	2 40W
Black or Eux. ſea	Turkey in	Europe and	Aſia		
Bruſſels	Brabant	Netherlands	Europ.	50 5N	4 6E
Bruges	Flanders	Ditto	Ditto	51 16	3 5
Brunſwick	Low. Saxony	Germany	Ditto	52 30	10 30
Buda	Lower	Hungary	Ditto	47 40	19 20
Burlington	Jerſey	North	Amer.	40 8	75 oW
Buenos Ayres	La Plata	South	Ditto	34 35S	57 54
Cairo	Lower	Egypt	Africa	30 oN	32 oE
Cagliari	Sardinia	Italy	Europ	39 25	9 38
Cichao	Tonquin	Eaſt-India	Aſia	21 30	105 o
Calais	Picardy	France	Europ.	50 58	1 54
Cambletown	Argyleſhire	Scotland	Ditto	55 30	5 40W
Cambridge	Cambridgeſ.	England	Ditto	52 15	o 5E
Cadiz	Andaluſia	Spain	Ditto	36 33	6 1W
Calcutta	Bengal	Eaſt-India	Aſia	22 oN	87 oE
Canterbury	Kent	England	Europ	51 16	1 15
Ceuta	Fez	Morocco	Africa	35 54	6 30W
Canton	Canton	China	Aſia	23 14	113 6E
Camodia	Siam	Eaſt-India	Ditto	13 30	105 o
Carliſle	Cumberland	England	Europ.	54 47	2 35W

Carthage

A New Geographical Table.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	Lat. D.	M.	Long. D.	M.
Carthage Ruins	Tunis	Barbary	Africa	36	30N	9	oE
Carthagena	Terra Firma	South	Amer.	10	28	77	oW
Cardigan	Cardiganſh.	Wales	Europ.	52	10	4	38
Candy	Ceylon iſle	Eaſt-India	Aſia	7	54	79	oE
Caſpian ſea	Ruſſian	Tartary	Ditto				
Caſſel	Heſſe Caſſel	Germany	Europ.	51	20	9	20
Cape Clear	Cork	Ireland	Ditto	51	10	9	40W
— Finiſterre	Galicia	Spain	Ditto	43	12	10	5
— Vincent	Algarve	Portugal	Ditto	36	53	9	6
— Verd		Negroland	Africa	14	43	17	20
— of Good Hope	Hottentot	Caffraria	Ditto	34	7S	19	35E
— Comorin	Hither India	Mogul Emp.	Aſia	7	50N	77	30
— Florida	Eaſt Florida	North	Amer.	24	57	80	30W
Cheſter	Cheſhire	England	Ditto	53	15	3	oW
Charles-town	S. Carolina	North	Amer.	32	45	79	12
Civita Vecchia	Pope's territ.	Italy	Europ.	42	5	12	30E
Cork	Munſter	Ireland	Ditto	51	49	8	40W
Coventry	Warwickſh.	England	Ditto	52	25	1	25
Conſtantinople	Romania	Turkey	Ditto	41	o	28	56E
Conſtance	Swabia	Germany	Ditto	47	37	9	12
Corinth	Morea	Turkey	Ditto	37	30	23	o
Cracow	LittlePoland	Poland	Ditto	50	o	19	30
Cuſco	Peru	South	Amer.	12	25S	70	oW
Damaſcus	Syria	Turkey	Aſia	33	15N	37	20E
Dantzic	Poliſh Pruſſia	Poland	Europ.	54	22	18	36
Dacca	Bengal	Eaſt-India	Aſia	23	30	89	20
Delhi	Delhi	Ditto	Ditto	29	o	76	30
Delft	Holland	Netherlands	Europ.	52	6	4	5
Derbent	Dagiſtan	Perſia	Aſia	41	40	50	30
Derby	Derbyſhire	England	Europ.	52	58	1	30W
Derry	Ulſter	Ireland	Ditto	54	52	7	40
Dien	Malabar	Eaſt-India	Aſia	21	37	69	30E
Dover	Kent	England	Europ.	51	8	1	25
Dreſden	Saxony	Germany	Ditto	51	o	13	36
Dundee	Forfar	Scotland	Ditto	56	26	2	48W
Dublin	Leinſter	Ireland	Ditto	53	20	6	28
Durham	Durham	England	Ditto	54	48	1	25
Dumbarton	Dumbartonſ.	Scotland	Ditto	55	54	4	20
Dunkirk	Flanders	Netherlands	Ditto	51	oN	2	20E
Dunbar	Haddington	Scotland	Ditto	55	58	2	25W
Dumfries	Dumfrieſh.	Ditto	Ditto	55	8	3	25
Epheſus	Natolia	Turkey	Aſia	38	1	27	53E
Edinburgh	Edinburghſ.	Scotland	Europ.	55	51	3	oW
Elbing	Pruſſia	Poland	Ditto	54	18	20	oE
Embden	Lower	Germany	Ditto	53	25	7	10
Exeter	Devonſhire	England	Ditto	50	45	3	30W
Falkirk	Stirling	Scotland	Ditto	55	54	3	48
Falmouth	Cornwall	England	Ditto	50	10	5	20
Fez	Fez	Morocco	Africa	33	30	6	o
Ferrol	Galicia	Spain	Europ.	43	30	8	40

Florence

A New Geographical Table.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Florence	Tuſcany	Italy	Ditto	43 30N	12 15E
Fort St. David	Coromandel	Eaſt-India	Aſia	12 5	80 55
Geneva	Geneva	Switzerland	Europ.	46 20	6 0
Genoa	Genoa	Italy	Ditto	44 25	9 0
Ghent	Flanders	Netherlands	Ditto	51 0	3 36
Gibraltar	Andaluſia	Spain	Ditto	36 0	6 0
Glaſgow	Lanerkſhire	Scotland	Ditto	55 50	4 5
Glouceſter	Glouceſterſ.	England	Ditto	51 50	2 16
Goa	Malabar	Eaſt-India	Aſia	15 31	74 20E
Gombroon	Farſiſtan	Perſia	Ditto	27 30	57 25
Gottenburgh	Gothland	Sweden	Europ.	58 0	11 30
Grenock	Renfrewſh.	Scotland	Ditto	55 52	4 22W
Hague	Holland	Netherlands	Ditto	52 10	4 0E
Hamburgh	Holſtein	Germany	Ditto	53 41	9 40
Halifax	Yorkſhire	England	Ditto	53 45	1 52W
Halifax	Nova Scotia	North Amer.		44 40	63 15
Hanover	Saxony	Germany	Europ.	52 32	9 35E
Havannah	Cuba	Iſland	Amer.	23 0	84 0W
Haerlem	Holland	Netherlands	Europ.	52 20	4 10E
Hughly	Bengal	Eaſt-India	Aſia	21 45	87 55
Hereford	Herefordſh.	England	Europ.	52 6	2 38W
Hull	Yorkſhire	Ditto	Ditto	53 45	6 12
Jeruſalem	Paleſtine	Turkey	Aſia	32 0	56 0E
Inverneſs	Invernesſh.	Scotland	Europ.	57 33	4 2W
Iſpahan	Irac Agem	Perſia	Aſia	32 50	51 30E
Kelſo	Roxboroughſ	Scotland	Europ.	55 38	2 12W
Kilmarnock	Airſhire	Ditto	Ditto	55 38	4 30
Kinſale	Munſter	Ireland	Ditto	51 32	8 20
Kingſton	Jamaica	Weſt-India	Amer.	17 40	77 0
Koningſberg	Pruſſia	Poland	Europ.	54 43	21 35E
Lancaſter	Lancaſhire	England	Ditto	54 5	2 55W
Lahore	Lahore	Eaſt-India	Aſia	32 40	75 30E
Leith	Edinburghſh.	Scotland	Europ.	55 58	3 0W
Leeds	Yorkſhire	England	Ditto	53 48	1 24
Leyden	Holland	Netherlands	Europ.	52 12	4 5E
Leipſic	Saxony	Germany	Ditto	51 20	12 40
Leiceſter	Leiceſterſh.	England	Ditto	52 40	1 5W
Linlithgow	Linlithgowſ.	Scotland	Ditto	55 56	3 30
Lincoln	Lincolnſhire	England	Ditto	53 15	0 27
Liſle	Flanders	Netherlands	Ditto	50 42	3 0E
Limerick	Munſter	Ireland	Ditto	52 35	8 48W
Liſbon	Eſtremadura	Portugal	Ditto	38 42	8 53
Lima	Peru	South Amer.		12 15S	77 30
Litchfield	Staffordſhire	England	Europ.	52 43N	1 40
Loretto	Pope's Ter.	Italy	Ditto	43 15	14 15E
London	Middleſex	England	Ditto	51 30	0 0
Londonderry	Ulſter	Ireland	Ditto	55 0	7 40W
Lubec	Holſtein	Germany	Ditto	54 0	11 40E
Lyons	Lyons	France	Ditto	45 46	4 55
Luxemburg	Luxemburg	Netherlands	Ditto	49 40	5 40

Macao

A New Geographical Table.

Town	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Macao	Canton	China	Aſia	22 13N	113 51E
Madrid	New Caſtile	Spain	Europ.	40 30	4 15W
Mancheſter	Lancaſhire	England	Ditto	53 30	2 22
Mantua	Mantua	Italy	Ditto	45 20	10 47E
Malacca	Malacca	Eaſt-India	Aſia	2 12	101 0
Madras	Coromandel	Ditto	Ditto	13 11	80 32
Manilla	Philippine	Ditto	Ditto	14 20	118 0
Marſeilles	Provence	France	Europ.	43 15	5 20
Medina	Arab. Deſerts	Arabia	Aſia	25 0	39 53
Mecca	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	21 45	41 0
Mequinez	Fez	Barbary	Africa	34 30	6 0
Milan	Milaneſe	Italy	Europ.	45 25	9 30
Mexico	Mexico	North	Amer.	20 0	103 0W
Milford Haven	Pembrokeſh.	Wales	Europ.	51 45	5 15
Mocho	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Aſia	13 40	43 50E
Modena	Modena	Italy	Europ.	44 45	11 20
Montreal	Canada	North	Amer.	45 35	73 11W
Montpellier	Languedoc	France	Europ.	43 30	3 50E
Montroſe	Forfar	Scotland	Ditto	56 34	2 20W
Morocco	Morocco	Barbary	Africa	30 32	6 10
Moſcow	Moſcow	Ruſſia	Europ.	55 45	37 51E
Munſter	Weſtphalia	Germany	Ditto	52 0	7 10
Nancy	Lorrain	Ditto	Ditto	48 44	6 0
Nanking	Nanking	China	Aſia	32 0	118 30
Naples	Naples	Italy	Europ.	41 0	14 19
Narva	Livonia	Ruſſia	Ditto	59 0	27 35
Newcaſtle	Northumber.	England	Ditto	55 3	1 24W
Nice	Piedmont	Italy	Ditto	43 42	7 5E
New-York	New-York	North	Amer.	40 40	74 0W
Nottingham	Nottingham	England	Europ.	53 0	1 6
Northampton	Northampth.	Ditto	Ditto	52 15	0 55
Norwich	Norfolk	England	Ditto	52 40	1 25E
Olympia	Greece	Turkey	Ditto	37 30	20 0
Olmutz	Moravia	Bohemia	Ditto	49 30	16 45
Oporto	Duoro	Portugal	Ditto	41 10	9 0W
Oran	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36 30	0 5E
Offend	Flanders	Netherlands	Europ.	51 15	2 45
Oxford	Oxfordſh.	England	Ditto	51 45	1 15W
Padua	Venice	Italy	Ditto	45 30	12 15E
Paiſley	Renfrewſh.	Scotland	Ditto	55 48	4 8W
Palmyra	Syria	Turkey	Aſia	33 0	39 6E
Panama	Darien	Terra Firma	Amer.	8 50	81 52W
Parma	Parmeſan	Italy	Europ.	44 45	10 51E
Patna	Bengal	Eaſt-India	Aſia	25 45	83 0
Pegu	Pegu	Ditto	Ditto	17 0	97 0
Pekin	Pekin	China	Ditto	40	116 28
Pembroke	Pembrokeſh.	Wales	Europ.	51 4	4 50W
Penzance	Cornwal	England	Ditto	50	6 0
Penſacola	Weſt Florida	North	Amer.	30 28	87 20
Perth	Perthſhire	Scotland	Europ.	56 22	3 12

Per-

A New Geographical Table.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	Lat. D.	M.		Long. D.	M.	
Perthamboy	New-York	North	Amer.	46	30	N	74	20	W
Perſepolis	Irac Agem	Perſia	Aſia	50	30		12	0	E
Peterſburg	Ingria	Ruſſia	Europ.	60	0		30	25	
Philadelphia	Pennſylvania	North	Amer.	40	0		75	20	W
Piſa	Tuſcany	Italy	Europ.	43	36		11	15	E
Plymouth	Devonſhire	England	Ditto	50	26		4	15	W
Plymouth	NewEngland	North	Amer.	41	48		70	25	
Pondicherry	Coromandel	Eaſt-India	Aſia	12	27		86	0	E
Portſmouth	Hampſhire	England	Europ.	50	48		1	6	W
Portſmoulh	NewEngland	North	Amer.	43	10		20	70	
Porto Bello	Darien	Terra Firma	Ditto	10	0		82	0	
Port L'Orient	Britanny	France	Europ.	47	42		3	15	
Potoſi	Peru	South	Amer.	21	0	S	67	0	
Prague		Bohemia	Europ.	50	0	N	14	20	E
Preſton	Lancaſhire	England	Ditto	53	45		2	50	W
Preſburg	Upper	Hungary	Ditto	48	20		17	30	E
Quebec	Canada	North	Amer.	46	55		69	48	W
Quito	Peru	South	Ditto	0	30	S	78	0	
Rio Janeiro	Brazil	Ditto	Ditto	22	40		43	10	
Raguſa	Dalmatia	Venice	Europ.	42	45	N	18	25	E
Ratiſbon	Bavaria	Germany	Ditto	48	56		12	5	
Revel	Livonia	Ruſſia	Ditto	59	0		23	7	
Rheims	Champagne	France	Ditto	49	14		4	0	
Riga	Livonia	Ruſſia	Europ.	56	55		24	0	E
Rome	Pope's territ.	Italy	Ditto	41	54		12	45	
Roſetto	Egypt	Turkey	Africa	31	10		41	35	
Rotterdam	Holland	Netherlands	Europ.	51	55		4	30	
Rouen	Normandy	France	Ditto	49	26		1	10	
St. Auguſtin	Eaſt-Florida	North	Amer.	29	45		81	12	W
St. Domingo	Hiſpaniola	Weſt-India	Ditto	18	20		70	0	
St. Helena	St. Helena	Iſland	Africa	16	0	S	6	30	
St. Jago	Chili	South	Amer.	34	0		77	0	
St. Salvador	Brazil	Ditto	Ditto	15	0		38	0	
Sallee	Fez	Barbary	Africa	34	0	N	6	20	
Samarcand	Uſbec	Tartary	Aſia	40	40		69	0	E
Saliſbury	Wiltſhire	England	Europ.	51	6		1	45	W
Santa Fe	New Mexico	North	Amer.	36	0		104	0	
Savannah	Georgia	Ditto	Ditto	31	55		80	20	
Scarborough	Yorkſhire	England	Europ.	54	18		0	10	W
Scone	Perthſhire	Scotland	Ditto	56	24		3	10	
Shrewſbury	Shropſhire	England	Ditto	52	43		2	46	
Shields	Durham	Ditto	Ditto	55	2		1	15	
Sheerneſs	Kent	Ditto	Ditto	52	25		0	50	E
Schiras	Farſiſtan	Perſia	Aſia	29	30		53	0	
Seville	Andaluſia	Spain	Europ.	37	15		6	5	W
Siam	Siam	Eaſt-India	Aſia	14	18		100	55	E
Sidon	Paleſtine	Turkey	Ditto	33	33		36	15	
Smyrna	Natolia	Ditto	Ditto	38	28		29	0	
Southampton	Hampſhire	England	Europ.	50	55		1	28	W
Spaw	Liege	Germany	Ditto	50	30		5	40	E

A New Geographical Table.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Sound		Denmark	Europ.	BalticSea.	
Stafford	Staffordſhire	England	Ditto	52 50N	2 0W
Stirling	Stirlingſhire	Scotland	Ditto	56 10	3 50
Stralſund	Pomerania	Germany	Ditto	54 23	13 22E
Straſburg	Alſace	Ditto	Ditto	48 38	7 51
Stockholm	Uplandia	Sweden	Ditto	59 30	18 8
Suez	Suez	Egypt	Africa	29 50	33 27
Sunderland	Durham	England	Europ	54 55	1 10W
Surinam	Surinam	South	Amer.	6 0	55 30
Surat	Cambaya	Eaſt-India	Aſia	21 10	72 25E
Tangier	Fez	Barbary	Africa	35 42	5 45W
Tanjour	Tanjour	Eaſt-India	Aſia	11 27	79 7E
Tauris, or Ecbatana	Media	Perſia	Ditto	38 20	46 30
Teflis	Georgia	Ditto	Aſia	43 30	47 0
Tetuan	Fez	Barbary	Africa	35 40	5 18W
Thorn	Regal Pruſſia	Poland	Europ.	52 56	19 0E
Tobolſki	Siberia	Ruſſia	Aſia	58 0	69 0
Toledo	New Caſtile	Spain	Europ.	39 45	4 12W
Toulon	Provence	France	Ditto	43 7	6 0E
Trabeſond	Natolia	Turkey	Aſia	49 50	40 30
Trent	Trent	Germany	Europ.	46 5	11 2
Troy Ruins	Natolia	Turkey	Aſia	39 30	26 30
Tripoli	Tripoli	Barbary	Africa	33 30	14 30
Tripoli	Syria	Turkey	Aſia	34 30	36 15
Tunis	Tunis	Barbary	Africa	36 47	10 0
Turin	Piedmont	Italy	Europ.	44 50	7 30
Tyre	Paleſtine	Turkey	Aſia	32 32	36 0
Utrecht	Holland	Netherlands	Europ.	52 7	5 0
Venice	Venice	Italy	Ditto	45 25	12 10
Vera Cruz	Old Mexico	North	Amer.	18 30	97 48W
Vienna	Auſtria	Germany	Europ.	48 20	16 20E
Warwick	Warwickſh.	England	Ditto	52 18	1 32W
Warſaw	Warſovia	Poland	Ditto	52 15	21 5E
Waterford	Munſter	Ireland	Ditto	52 12	7 16W
Whitehaven	Cumberland	England	Ditto	54 38	3 36
Williamſburg	Virginia	North	Amer.	37 12	76 48
Wells	Somerſetſh.	England	Europ.	51 12	2 40
Wincheſter	Hampſhire	Ditto	Ditto	51 6	1 15
Worms	Lower Rhine	Germany	Ditto	49 38	8 5E
Worceſter	Worceſterſh.	England	Ditto	52 10	2 15W
Yarmouth	Norfolk	Ditto	Ditto	52 45	1 48E
York	Yorkſhire	Ditto	Ditto	54 0	1 3W

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